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ABSTRACT

This guide is intended to help college faculty and administrators initiate, plan, and conduct faculty development and curriculum projects concerned with incorporating the content and perspectives of women's studies and ethnic studies into college curricula. It describes the major stages and components of successful curriculum transformation projects based on analysis of approximately 180 such projects developed since 1980. Chapter 1 offers an overview of curriculum transformation, including a brief history and a discussion of its effects on faculty and students. Chapter 2, on beginning a project, stresses goal definition, project leadership and structure, soliciting campus support, and funding. Chapter 3 describes various project models, including workshops, seminars, and study groups; summer institutes; consortial projects; and use of outside consultants. Chapter 4 examines workshop content and dynamics; chapter 5 deals with resistance. Chapter 6, by Beth Vanfossen, is on project evaluation, and discusses reasons for evaluating projects, types of evaluation, deciding what to measure, and evaluation steps. The final chapter is on institutionalizing project results. Appendices provide additional information on the process of faculty change, versions of feminist phase/stage theory, and integration of ethnic content. (Contains 49 references.) (DB)

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WOMEN in the CURRICULUM

ED 432 956

GETTING STARTED Planning Curriculum Transformation

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National Center for Curriculum Transformation Resources on Women
1997

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This manual would not have been possible without the collective wisdom of the more than twenty years of curriculum transformation activity on which it has richly drawn, particularly the published and unpublished reports of that activity by project directors and participants. Many of these are specifically cited in the text, but all—faculty, administrators, and students—who have participated in projects and have shared their experience and insights deserve acknowledgment here. We particularly want to acknowledge Betty Schmitz, a leader in curriculum transformation since its beginning, on whose work we have especially depended.

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PREFACE

This handbook is designed to help faculty and administrators initiate, plan, and conduct faculty development and curriculum projects whose purpose is to incorporate the content and perspectives of women's studies and ethnic studies scholarship in order to create a more inclusive curriculum.

Since its beginnings in the late 1970s, the movement known as curriculum transformation has steadily grown, until by now hundreds of formal projects have been or are being conducted throughout the United States. Undoubtedly there are others, including innumerable activities launched by women's studies and ethnic studies programs, that haven't been officially reported. These projects represent every type of institution in higher education, from the community college and the small private liberal arts college to the comprehensive university and the research university. They have been both small- and large-scale, from projects conducted on a single campus to those embracing a regional group of institutions, and an entire state. Since the early 1980s, also, projects have been conducted in an ever-increasing number of secondary schools. The SEED Project (Seeking Educational Equity and Diversity) alone, begun in 1987, has by now reached over 5000 K-12 educators both in the United States and abroad.

Many of these projects have produced valuable materials describing their experience. Some of this is available in published form—in newsletters, articles, and books; some

still resides in the file drawers of project directors. Much even of the published material is not always easily or immediately accessible. Yet as the curriculum transformation movement continues to grow, so too does the need for information about how to facilitate and create such curriculum change most effectively.

Indeed, today the need for this information is greater than ever, as the goals of such projects have become more comprehensive, and as funding for them becomes harder to find. The earliest projects, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, usually emerged out of women's studies programs, and their goal was to include the experiences and perspectives of women in the curriculum. That goal by now has been both more carefully defined and broadened. The development of ethnic studies programs and scholarship as well as recent new directions in women's studies scholarship have emphasized the differences and diversity among women. Hence, curriculum projects today focus more on issues of diversity and, therefore, on the interrelationships among gender, race, class, ethnicity and other forms of difference. Rethinking both what and how we teach becomes more complex and more challenging, and the experience of successful projects can therefore be all the more valuable.

In addition, both higher and secondary education are experiencing increasingly severe financial constraints. States are reducing their budget allocations for public education, and as with all aspects of education, projects will be expected to do more with less. In addition, projects must now contend with and function inside a public and political environment of misunderstanding, and even hostility to curriculum change. Having basic information and advice on organizational techniques and strategies may help those planning a project to use their time and resources more efficiently and to achieve more lasting results.

This handbook describes the major stages and components of curriculum transformation projects as they have developed since about 1980 and is essentially a distillation of the experience of previous and current projects. Using information acquired from both published and unpublished materials, from formal interviews and informal conversations with directors and participants in approximately 180 curriculum projects, as well as our own experience in curriculum change work, we have summarized what has been done and is currently being done, and what has worked well or is currently working well. Curriculum transformation is a dynamic, ongoing process, involving complex, long-range interactions between individuals and ideas in various institutional settings. Much of that dynamic—probably the most essential parts of it—can't be captured on the printed page. Moreover, new ways of doing the work will inevitably develop as faculty and administrators undertaking projects respond to new needs and changing conditions in secondary and post-secondary education. In new situations and new settings, however, the information in this booklet should still be useful to both individuals and groups undertaking curriculum change work. Moreover, it draws attention to and underscores the importance of not losing sight of women and gender issues in curriculum change work that may have other points of focus.

Administrators or faculty planning to undertake a project may, having read this handbook, want to go beyond its brief descriptions to consult some of the original sources on which we have drawn. We therefore append a bibliography of books and articles that will provide the reader with more fully articulated discussions. In addition, we refer the reader to our publication, *Directory: Curriculum Transformation Projects and Activities in the U.S.*, which can be used to locate and communicate directly with specific projects: those, for example, that have been conducted at institutions similar to the reader's own.

Towson State University, Baltimore, MD

CHAPTER 1

CURRICULUM TRANSFORMATION: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

Curriculum transformation is a process whereby faculty in colleges, universities, and secondary schools study the new scholarship on women (with emphasis on the diversity of women) in order to incorporate the insights and information from that study into their courses. In format, such projects usually involve faculty from different disciplines who meet in seminars or workshops to discuss readings, revise courses, and often create new courses. Typical designs for such projects range from summer or semester-long seminars to multi-year projects and multi-institutional consortia.

A Brief History of Curriculum Transformation

The seeds of curriculum transformation were planted in the late 1960s, when scholars and teachers in higher education began to respond to the growing recognition that coverage of women — their experiences, perspectives, and diversity — was almost completely absent from the traditional

curriculum. For example, surveys of academic disciplines revealed that history textbooks devoted less than one percent of their coverage to women; that literature courses contained on average only eight percent women authors; that the most widely-used textbook in art history courses included not a single woman artist; that generalizations about "human" behavior in psychology courses were based on research using only male samples; that in sociology the study of women was more often than not confined to special units on the family or on minority groups; that even scientific procedures were often less objective than is commonly believed (Coulter, Edgington, and Hedges, 1986). Such discoveries raised grave questions about the validity of the version of human experience offered by the liberal arts, and therefore about the essential claim that a liberal arts education provides students with models of human experience and behavior that best equip them for living.

The 1970s therefore saw the development of women's studies as a new area of scholarly inquiry, one frequently modelled on and inspired by the courses and programs in Black Studies that had begun earlier. Through the development of women's studies courses and programs and the extensive research by feminist scholars that such programs and courses generated and encouraged, interest in women and in gender as a category of analysis began to develop in a large number of disciplines. The veritable explosion of new research findings, many of which challenged older ways of thinking about social reality, was soon responded to by scholars and researchers in the various academic disciplines and by graduate students. Large numbers of faculty, however, especially those trained in earlier decades, were often unaware of, indifferent or even hostile to new developments. In addition, faculty were often too busy with teaching and other responsibilities to engage in the study necessary to assimilate the new knowledge.

In the 1980s, to assist the integration of the new knowledge into the traditional curriculum, a number of universities across the nation sponsored faculty development projects designed to bring to faculty the new scholarship on women with the aim of altering traditional courses.

Feminists of color were producing important scholarship throughout the 1970s and 1980s, and by the late 1980s, that scholarship, as well as the work of scholars in areas like Jewish studies and lesbian studies, had achieved more visibility in the academy and was significantly affecting curriculum transformation. As women of color pointed out, much of the early scholarship on women either explicitly or implicitly addressed issues of concern primarily to white, middle-class women in the United States and Western Europe. It was essential to examine race and class biases, and to address the diversity of women. Curriculum transformation projects of the 1990s thus reflect the shift in emphasis from the older focus on "women" as often undifferentiated to a more complex focus on the diversity among women, flowing from women's heterogeneity of race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, and social class location. Recent curriculum transformation projects have therefore focused on diversity among women in the United States, and others have adopted an international perspective.

The Effect of Projects on Faculty

For some of those who undertake curriculum transformation, the results can be profound. Consider these remarks made by the participants of a community college project (Towson State University Evaluation Report, 1994):

- The most important change that occurred for me is not in the syllabus, but in my viewing the entire

field from a different perspective. The project stimulated me to learn more about many new areas, to learn more about my own course, to read more, to view my field from a different perspective, to reach out to my students more successfully. It was a revitalizing and exciting experience.

- The project was an incredibly wonderful experience for me. . . . I found the readings, workshop meetings, and guest speakers extremely stimulating . . . I grew intellectually and gained confidence I didn't know I lacked. This is without doubt the most exciting sustained intellectual work I've done since graduate school.

- I've not become a feminist. I've not abandoned the canon. But I have discovered some books by women to rotate through my courses—books I wouldn't have found without this project. . . . Gender issues have now become a regular part of my thinking when I plan any course. And not just including a book by a woman, but thinking about women throughout the course, in all the books.

Evaluations of the effects of curriculum transformation projects on faculty suggest that about one-quarter of participants experience little or no change as a result of involvement in the project, adding little to their courses and syllabi. But on the other side of the change continuum, about one-third experience great change, as illustrated in the quotations above. And the remainder experience moderate change, resulting in modifications of and additions to their courses, assignments, syllabi, and ways of teaching (Vanfossen, 1994). Moreover such evaluations, done at the conclusion of projects, do not describe the ongoing changes that many faculty will continue to experience. The end of a

project is only the beginning of a process of continuous change for many faculty.

Overall, the large majority of faculty report satisfaction and gratification with the results, despite the hard work involved. The following are the kinds of results most frequently reported.

1. Changes in course content, organization, and methodology

Change can range from minimal to maximal, from adding one new book or topic or concept to integrating new material and perspectives throughout the course to completely reconceptualizing the structure and content of the course (Schmitz et al., 1995, p. 720). One study of 11 projects funded by the Ford Foundation under its "Mainstreaming Minority Women's Studies Initiative" determined that the most common changes made in a course syllabus were the addition of a new text, changes in topics or concepts, and the integration of new material throughout the course (Ginorio et al., 1992). Three-fourths of the faculty in the Ford project made at least some changes in their syllabi. In addition, not just revised courses but new courses are often created as the result of curriculum transformation projects.

2. Changes in pedagogy

Seeing students as active rather than passive learners; replacing the lecture approach with more interactive pedagogies; and emphasizing the development of critical thinking rather than retention of facts and "coverage" of material are changes frequently found in teaching methods. A changed

approach to their teaching was, for example, the major difference that faculty in the University of Washington project reported. The changes included adopting cooperative approaches and interactive pedagogy, placing greater emphasis on critical thinking and becoming more willing to share or delegate authority to students ("University of Washington Curriculum Transformation Project, 1992-1993," p. 4).

These changes in teaching methods often reflect altered views of student needs and experiences. For example, University of Washington reported that faculty expressed greater respect for students and their capacity to learn, greater respect for student diversity, and willingness to see conflict and disagreement as part of both their own and students' learning process.

A comparison of pre- and post-tests of faculty attitudes in a community college curriculum transformation project also revealed significant change among faculty toward increasing the emphasis in their courses on social issues and problems, desiring that course content allow students to discover themselves as unique individuals and to clarify their beliefs and values, and encouraging students to examine diverse views about issues (Vanfossen, 1994).

3. Professional Change

One consequence of curriculum transformation projects is changes by faculty in their research interests. Many are stimulated by the new knowledge and perspectives they acquire to redirect their research or define new areas for investigation. For other faculty, the project inspires a new or rekindled interest in doing research, and participating in professional conferences.

The larger changes involve reconceptualizations of the sort reported, for example, by the curriculum transformation project conducted at UCLA in 1989-1991. "[Faculty] began to learn how to reconceive history, periods, and borders; how to value experience differently; how to question the frames of reference or voices at work when we speak of a dominant culture as a tradition; and how to think in terms of heterogeneity even within seemingly homogeneous 'ethnic' and 'women's' studies" (Rowe, 1994, p. 36).

Effects on Students

Students are the ultimate recipients of curriculum transformation efforts, and large numbers have been and are being reached through the revised and new courses that emerge from curriculum transformation projects. Revised introductory courses in the disciplines and courses that count towards general education requirements especially reach large numbers of students. Montana State, for example, noted that over 1300 students were enrolled in 27 revised courses in 1980-1981. At Yale, in 1984, one out of every five students was enrolled in courses affected by the curriculum transformation project there (Wright and Talburtt, 1987).

The specific effects of such revised courses on students—ranging from the acquisition of new knowledge to changes in perception, attitudes, and values—are of course difficult to measure, especially in the short term. And no long-range studies have been undertaken. However, those analyses and evaluations that have been undertaken of the impact of women's studies courses on students may be used to indicate the likely effects of courses emerging from

curriculum transformation projects, since the goals of such courses are similar or the same. In *The Courage to Question: Women's Studies and Student Learning* (1992) the evaluators of seven women's studies programs concluded that the following were the most important effects on students:

- becoming aware of and familiar with new intellectual content; specifically, a women's studies knowledge base that included recognition of the social construction of gender and of knowledge, the interlocking oppression of women, women's varied relations to patriarchy, and women's power and empowerment
- experiencing personalized learning that linked the intellectual and the experimental
- acquiring a sense of voice and empowerment
- developing critical perspectives
- recognizing difference and diversity

While the above paragraphs describe some of the most widely reported effects of curriculum transformation projects, it should be noted that such projects, given their time limits, attempt to lay the groundwork for continued, on-going change. The ultimate impact of curriculum transformation, that is to say, is intended to be long-term and is only partially indicated by the results achieved by the end of the project as reported by project directors and surveys.

CHAPTER 2

BEGINNING A PROJECT

Within educational institutions curriculum is constantly under scrutiny and in the process of change. Individual faculty regularly revise their courses in large and small ways; departments periodically review and revise their course offerings and their requirements for the major or minor; an institution as a whole periodically reviews and reassesses its general education or distribution requirements.

However, curriculum transformation, as it is understood within women's studies and ethnic and multicultural studies, and as the term, "transformation," implies, usually involves more than the above-mentioned practices, since it calls traditional knowledge into question and often requires fundamental changes in the ways that disciplines have defined themselves. To achieve it—or merely to lay the groundwork for it—therefore usually involves significant amounts of time and focused attention. These are most effectively provided through projects, of the sort described in this handbook, which allow faculty to concentrate intensively on the new materials on women and the questions these materials raise, to discuss questions and issues with colleagues, and to experiment with change in the classroom.

Often, curriculum transformation can't be pursued directly, or immediately, through an organized, full-scale

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project. Those interested in curriculum transformation may therefore want to participate in other institutional initiatives, such as revising core courses or creating new assessment procedures. The case for a more inclusive curriculum can be presented within these initiatives, although the outcome is likely to depend on the amount of support and understanding that already exists within the group. Also, the specific focus of the initiative may preclude discussion of broader underlying issues. Since curriculum transformation is especially challenging, and indeed unsettling, it may lose out to issues that are more easily resolved or more easily understood. On the other hand, discussions may reveal the need for and stimulate interest in creating a separate curriculum transformation project. In any case, it is important that faculty interested in curriculum transformation participate in the regular curriculum processes of the institution in order to insure that gender and diversity are among curricular priorities.

Most curriculum transformation projects originate through the interest of a group of faculty who are strongly committed to curriculum change. The most effective projects have usually been those conducted on campuses with strong women's studies, African American studies, Latino/Chicano studies, American Indian studies, ethnic studies, multicultural studies, or similar programs. Given these conditions, the decision, or the opportunity, to initiate a curriculum transformation project may be facilitated by one or more of the following:

- An administrative mandate to review or revise general education requirements or a core curriculum
- An initiative on writing across the curriculum
- An upcoming accreditation review of a program or department or the institution as a whole

- A department's decision to review its major requirements or its total course offerings
- Administrative, faculty, or student concern with the campus climate and with student diversity, student recruitment, or student retention, and/or with faculty and staff recruitment and retention
- An invitation to participate in a consortial project
- The availability of internal funding for faculty development
- Student interest in a curriculum that reflects them and responds to their needs

Whatever the motivating circumstances, once the decision to initiate a project is made, the following will be essential items to consider in planning the project:

- defining the project's goals
- determining the project's leadership and structure
- building a core of supporting faculty, and soliciting other sources of campus support and participation
- making concrete and specific plans and time-lines
- securing internal and/or external funding
- setting clear goals so that faculty participants in the project know what is expected of them
- planning ways to sustain and extend the work of the project after its formal completion, including incorporating an evaluation research design

We'll discuss each of these aspects of a curriculum transformation project in turn. In reality, of course, they will overlap, and observations or suggestions included under one aspect will frequently be relevant to other aspects as well.

Defining Goals

Perhaps the most important consideration, in deciding upon the goals of a curriculum transformation project, is to determine where your institution—the administration, the faculty, and the student body—is in terms of curriculum change. Some useful questions to ask, that will help to guide your decisions, include:

- What is the campus climate regarding curriculum change? Is it hospitable, hostile, indifferent?
- What is the level of administrative, faculty, student interest and awareness?
- What other educational initiatives are underway or planned to which you could relate your project?
- What can you realistically expect to accomplish in a specific amount of time?

It can be extremely useful, in the early stages of planning your project, to visit or examine the work done at other campuses similar to your own. Correspondence with or telephone calls to project directors elsewhere can be helpful. Consulting the *Directory: Curriculum Transformation Projects and Activities in the U.S.* published by NCCTRW will give you valuable information on projects done elsewhere that can help you shape and define your own.

Whatever your specific goals, a curriculum transformation project is likely to focus on faculty development: introducing faculty to the new scholarship on women and diversity in order to create curriculum change. The experience of previous projects suggests that it is especially important, therefore, to assess the level of faculty interest and knowledge, in order to avoid either under- or overestimating it in planning project activities and goals. Surveys, questionnaires, and interviews, which will be discussed in more detail below, can help you make this assessment of your faculty.

The goals you set for your project may be modest or extensive. Usually projects focus, either singly or in combination, on revising existing courses or academic programs, creating new courses or programs, and dealing with issues of pedagogy and improving the classroom or campus climate. Whatever the goals, they should be defined in terms of specific outcomes or products. These may take the form of annotated bibliographies, revised syllabi, a syllabus for a new course, a new unit in a course, a lecture or presentation by a project participant, a report to department faculty or to a department chair or a dean, or various other dissemination activities. Such products are proof that the project has met its specific goals, and they are also a way of insuring faculty commitment for the duration of the project.

Whatever your immediate goals, the experience of previous projects also strongly suggests that it is important to have long-term goals in mind as well. Be both visionary and pragmatic. Have a large vision, but also a realistic awareness that the vision will be only partially fulfilled; combine a broad view of possible change with a willingness to accept limited results, and recognize that since change is usually incremental and evolutionary, even small changes will matter. Having the large vision, however, and convey-

ing it throughout the project to participants (and to the campus as a whole) can help allay the idea that when the project ends, the need for change ends. Such a vision can, also, ideally lay the groundwork for continued curriculum change on your campus including the establishment of curriculum transformation as a permanent part of faculty development.

Determining the Project's Leadership and Structure

Usually a project is initially conceived by a small group of people who then solicit the support and work of others in designing activities. One or several project directors, or a central planning committee, often do the initial, very basic design work. Most often, the project is the responsibility of one or more regular faculty with sufficient released time to serve as directors. They should be faculty with academic status, who have the respect and support of their peers and of the administration. In addition to faculty, those who eventually become involved often include librarians, staff, and students. Librarians can be very helpful and are often overlooked.

The people involved may be organized either informally or formally into planning committees, advisory boards, or steering committees. Any successful project needs both people who are knowledgeable about curriculum change, and people who have sufficient authority on campus to give the project official weight and status, and frequently these are not the same people. A project might therefore decide to have an Advisory Board for political support and communication, and a Planning Committee for planning and implementation. The successful implementation of any

faculty development project, meanwhile, will necessitate having skilled faculty leaders, who are familiar with women's studies and ethnic studies scholarship, and who can facilitate faculty learning in the project.

The importance of the core groups cannot be too strongly emphasized. First, the amount of work involved in conducting a project, especially for its directors, will always be much more than anticipated. Therefore the support of such groups in terms of time, energy, advice, active participation in planning and conducting the project and, of course, general morale, is crucial.

Second, in creating such groups, valuable coalitions can be formed with various academic programs, administrative offices, and campus groups whose cooperation and support are important or even essential to the success of the project and to its institutionalization. Coalitions between women's studies and ethnic studies programs are especially crucial.

Summarizing the experience of curriculum projects conducted prior to 1985, Betty Schmitz reported that "Two types of advisory boards were common: (1) small, working committees of knowledgeable and committed individuals who generated, implemented, evaluated and modified project activities; and (2) broadly based boards of a more diverse nature and more representative of both the power structure and the target area, who acted as sounding boards for project plans and suggested ways of achieving project objectives." In both cases, the criteria for selection included "representation from disciplines or units of the institution; representation from women and cultural minorities; persons respected by their peers within the institution; persons knowledgeable about the power structure of the institution and able to get things done" (Schmitz, 1985, pp. 34-35).

The experience of previous projects also suggests that projects should be located within established programs or offices, especially high-priority ones; and that project directors report to or have access to administrators, such as department chairs, deans, and vice-presidents who have authority over the curriculum areas to be affected (Schmitz, 1985, pp. 31-32).

It should also be emphasized that those organizing and planning a project should keep control of it. The experience of a failed project that was organized to introduce diversity requirements into a general education curriculum suggests some of the risks involved in creating a project that is vulnerable to being co-opted and compromised. (Goodstein, 1994).

Initially, as we have said, curriculum transformation projects most frequently focused on changing the curriculum to include more representation of women, and women's studies faculty and programs were often the source of projects and project leadership. Today, with broader goals of creating a curriculum that addresses issues of cultural pluralism and diversity, projects need to draw for their leadership, committees and boards from all available groups and programs representing the constituencies these goals address. These may include African-American studies programs, Chicano/a or Latino/a studies, American Indian and Asian American studies, gay and lesbian studies, gender studies programs, and ethnic studies, multicultural studies, and other comparative cultural studies programs. In addition, the support of many non-academic campus groups can be solicited, such as Committee W of the AAUP, the Women's Center, any Committee on the Status of Women, the Affirmative Action Office or Office of Fair Practices, the Counselling Center, Student Advising and Orientation Offices and other Student Services, and any student groups that deal with women and minorities.

Finally, a project will need secretarial and clerical staff to keep records, duplicate and distribute materials to project faculty, send announcements of meetings, do publicity, etc. Underestimating the amount of clerical and secretarial help needed has been a weakness of some projects. As with the work of the project director(s), the clerical work load is inevitably greater than anticipated. It is important not only to secure competent secretarial and clerical help, but to make these staff members an integral and respected part of the project.

Soliciting Campus Support and Participation

Project initiators and organizers have used a variety of strategies to solicit and build support. As with other aspects of a project, the approaches one chooses will depend on the nature of the project and the institutional context.

Administrative Support

Project planners need to understand the institutional structure and politics of their campus, in order to get strategic (and often material) support and to create alliances.

Leaders of past projects have emphasized the importance of recognition and support by the institution's administration. Advance discussions with the president, provost, affirmative action office or office of fair practices, deans, and department chairs to discuss initial plans and get advice and support are often worthwhile. They all can provide important sources of information, as well as enable you to communicate your goals. Getting their support may

be easier if one can show how the project relates to specific campus priorities, initiatives, or needs. For example, perhaps the project is related to other institutional changes, such as redesigning general education requirements, rewriting the mission statement, preparing for an accreditation review, strengthening an existing women's studies, ethnic studies, or other interdisciplinary or minority studies program, or introducing issues of diversity and multiculturalism into a core curriculum.

Other persuasive arguments that can be used to obtain administrative support include showing how the project helps fulfill the goals of a liberal education, how it responds to changing student needs or the changing nature of the student body, and how it is consonant with important developments in education being implemented on other campuses. As aids in persuading administrators of the importance of the project, project planners might consider using the policy statements of educational organizations, such as the American Council on Education or the Association of American Colleges and Universities, which, in recent years, have addressed the need for a more inclusive curriculum.

In turn, projects may benefit from working with administrators, who can often provide information and advice on the institution as a whole that individual faculty or small groups of faculty may lack. Sympathetic administrators may advise on the politics of the institution, or on long-range institutional plans that might affect the success of a project. Administrative contingency funds often provide seed money or full project support.

Some projects have found it useful to have official letters of invitation to faculty participants written by department chairs or deans. Others have had the president introduce the project at an opening session or publicly sponsor

such a session. These and other forms of administrative endorsement can help confer "legitimacy" upon the project and encourage faculty to see it as a professional activity that will be taken seriously, for example in promotion and tenure decisions. However, administrative involvement in a faculty-run project should not become, or be perceived as, controlling.

Faculty Participation

Curriculum change projects are essentially faculty development projects, and faculty will be the heart of the project, although a few institutions have included not only teaching faculty but librarians with faculty rank. Bergen Community College (1988-1991) also admitted counselling staff with faculty rank to its project.

Projects need to consider carefully the most effective ways of generating faculty interest and support for the project. Some projects begin with a campus-wide event, such as a presentation on curriculum transformation by an outside guest speaker of recognized reputation, as a way of broadly publicizing the project, giving it status, and creating initial interest, including interest by faculty who may then be invited to participate in the project. Others have used regularly scheduled faculty or professional development days to present the idea of curriculum transformation and to propose the project, with faculty also meeting in small groups or conducting roundtable discussions to begin to explore the possibility of participation. Still others have solicited interest by giving individual presentations to departments or programs. At Bergen Community College, the President sponsored a dinner the first year and a lunch the second, to which all faculty were invited, where they were introduced to the idea of the project and encouraged

to participate. In addition to helping identify possible faculty participants, many of these strategies provide ways of gaining official endorsement for the project.

Potential project participants are often asked to submit a statement of interest and purpose and these are often used as a way of selecting participants. Projects have also used self-assessment questionnaires to gather information from faculty about their level of interest and awareness.

Most projects choose to exercise some degree of control over which faculty they invite to participate. A completely open call for faculty participation, such as Montana State (1979-1981) used, for example, may not get you the faculty you want. Whom you want will of course depend on the nature of the project, but frequently a project will want a mix of junior and senior faculty, male and female, of different ethnicities, including some who serve on important committees or in positions of power in the institution. A project heavily weighted with junior or untenured faculty may not carry sufficient prestige, while also running the risk of later losing those who may leave the institution. In addition, one must be careful to consider the impact of curriculum transformation work on the promotion and tenure prospects of younger faculty. Senior tenured faculty may help institutionalize the results of the project after its completion and influence younger faculty to engage in the work.

Projects are also likely to want a mix of faculty already experienced in curriculum revision or familiar with the new feminist and multicultural scholarship, and those who are not. Finally, the particular courses that faculty teach and their relative impact on the curriculum will be factors in choosing participants. Working with department chairs to identify faculty who teach key courses is useful here, and a way of enlisting departmental support for the project.

Some projects invite interested faculty to submit a letter of interest and intent, or a specific proposal for revising a course or creating a new course. These letters or proposals are then used to make the final selection. Selection criteria may include the concreteness and specificity of the proposal, the likelihood of its being achieved within the time frame of the project, the importance of a proposed course revision or new course to a program, major, or set of general education requirements, or some indication of the faculty person's commitment to continue to work for curriculum change beyond the formal end of the project. Some projects, such as one at the University of Arizona in the 1980s, interviewed faculty as part of the selection process. Many projects strongly recommend personal visits to faculty, to talk with them about the project and appeal to their teaching, research, and collegial interests. This tactic was the one most often mentioned as effective by participants in the consortial Western States project (1983-1985).

Projects describe a variety of incentives that encourage faculty to join. Stipends are of course especially desirable, and they have been used extensively in the past, especially in projects with generous outside federal or foundation funding. Projects can no longer count on such funding, however, and college and university budgets are also tighter; hence, incentives other than stipends may need to be found. Although in one current, on-going project, the smaller the stipends became the fewer senior faculty applied, directors of several past projects found no clear proof that stipends are essential in order to motivate faculty.

Released time, if it can be arranged, will in some cases be more desirable than stipends, since what faculty in a project usually need is sufficient time to read and absorb new material. If full released time from one course can't be arranged, partial released time might be. The University of

Oregon (1989-1991), for example, was able to arrange for project participation to count for one point of released time, towards three points that would eventually qualify a faculty member for release from teaching one course. Institutions with merit arrangements can also use a system of merit points.

Where a project is able to choose between offering released time or stipends, the individual needs and desires of one's faculty should be taken into account as far as possible. While one might assume that faculty with heavy teaching loads will prefer released time, this has not always been the case. At SUNY Brockport (1987-1989), for example, 15 of 18 faculty chose a $500 summer stipend over one-course released time. Particularly for junior faculty who may have lower salaries and young children, stipends may be more desirable. Faculty at research universities, where teaching loads are lighter, may also prefer stipends.

Faculty themselves report various motivations for joining a project: belief in the importance of the project, intellectual curiosity, a desire for intellectual exchange with their peers, interest in improving teaching and/or pursuing particular research interests, even the satisfaction of receiving free books and materials, which most projects are able to provide. In some cases, a sense of obligation to or respect for those leading the project motivates particular faculty to join. Above all, in the experience of many project directors, the "intellectual content and quality of the program were critical in eliciting faculty participation" (Schmitz, Dinnerstein, and Mairs, 1985).

In *Core Curriculum and Cultural Pluralism (1992)*, which reports on projects at colleges and universities designed to incorporate multicultural material and perspectives into the core curriculum, Betty Schmitz describes the results of a survey she conducted, which indicated that for 50 percent

of the participants released time, stipends or other monetary rewards were important motivation; that the opportunity to interact with colleagues, "to discuss teaching and engage in intellectually stimulating seminars with colleagues from across the campus" was an important motivation for 40 percent; that for 23 percent "administrative support and encouragement" was a significant factor and that 23 percent also were motivated by a desire to improve the curriculum. She concludes that two types of incentives are needed: "motivational," which she defines as including a sense of institutional mission, a concern for the quality of the curriculum, and a desire for community with colleagues; and "enabling," meaning money, time and resources.

Schmitz's survey especially confirms the experience of those in other curriculum transformation projects that significant numbers of faculty are likely to embrace an opportunity to engage in stimulating intellectual discussion with colleagues in structured settings. Both within and across departments and disciplines, faculty in higher education typically are isolated from each other; day-to-day campus life provides few occasions for sustained intellectual exchange; and faculty are often unfamiliar even with what colleagues in their own departments are doing in their classrooms. One of the greatest satisfactions of curriculum change projects can be the intellectual exchange they create.

Student Involvement

Student involvement in curriculum transformation projects has been less extensive in the past than it might have been, and directors of recent projects are increasingly encouraging such involvement and recognizing its value. Students, after all, will be the recipients of the transformed curriculum, and they need to be encouraged to understand

the need for curriculum change, and the importance of their support and active participation in creating change. Projects that have included students have discovered that their participation—for example, student collaboration with faculty in revising course design, content, and pedagogy—has been of great value. On the other hand, project directors also need to recognize the likelihood of some student misunderstanding or opposition to change, and find ways of dealing with the resistance.

Students can be included on the advisory board or planning committee or steering committee of the project. They can be invited, as at the University of Oregon, to meet guest speakers and consultants. Publicizing the project in the student newspaper and on the student radio station, soliciting the interest and support of student clubs in those disciplines involved in the project, encouraging the Student Government Association to use some of its funds to support speakers on topics related to the project are other ways in which students can become both informed and involved. Especially at institutions that emphasize teaching, student awareness and interest in a project may be a strong factor in persuading administrators to support a project and faculty to join it.

The project at the University of Oregon had a student-run workshop on the chilly classroom climate, which, they reported, was the best attended of a series of opening workshops held to publicize the project. Lewis and Clark College, which began curriculum transformation work in the early 1980s, has had for many years highly successful student-oriented conferences with student-run panels. Towson State University (1983-86) included in their project "dialogue" sessions with students on classroom climate and pedagogy, and a student panel at its final dissemination conference. In addition, internships available through various undergraduate majors can give students academic credit for

assisting project faculty with research or project directors with administrative tasks. The University of Southern Illinois at Carbondale requires student teaching assistants to take a course or workshop in gender and multicultural teaching.

Graduate students have been used successfully in many projects. At Eastern Washington University (1983-1988) they were paired with project faculty, where they helped to locate resources and redesign a course or part of a course. The Ford Ethnic Women's Curriculum Transformation Project at UCLA included graduate students in its seminars, where they worked on new course designs, created teaching packets and bibliographies, and recommended text book revisions. The University of Wisconsin-Madison "Women of Color in the Curriculum" project (1989-1992) had two graduate students as project coordinators.

Often, as UCLA project director Karen Rowe has noted, graduate students are more familiar than traditional faculty with the new theoretical models for gender and ethnic research, and they can therefore be valuable resource people in a workshop. In addition, they gain experience that will prepare them as future teachers (Rowe, 1994, p. 29). Indeed, they are often the ones who teach most of the introductory courses at large research universities, and these courses are widely recognized as key courses for curriculum transformation. Graduate students are also likely to approach the work of curriculum change with energy and enthusiasm. At Wisconsin, this enthusiasm led the students to create innovative ways of presenting the work of the seminars to faculty ("Summary", 1990, p. 4).

One of the most extensive inclusions of undergraduate students as full participants in a curriculum project was at the University of Washington. Their 1993-1994 project on

incorporating the study of United States cultural pluralism into the general education curriculum involved 25 undergraduate students from a diversity of backgrounds as full partners with 35 faculty members in the study of texts and course design. The experience was beneficial for both faculty and students. Faculty expressed a new confidence in students' capacity to learn; welcomed conflict and tension as a means of developing intellectual enlightenment and maturity; and reported that they had expanded the scope of their reading and the kinds of questions they ask in their teaching and research. Student evaluations indicated that the project provided a way for them to contribute their own expertise and validate their classroom experiences, which in the past had often been unwelcoming to them. They also reported that working in interdisciplinary teams with faculty challenged their critical thinking skills in ways positively different from the classroom challenge. A number of students became involved with faculty-led projects in national professional associations, thus benefiting from contacts made in the university project.

Seeking Funding

Conducting a project, even a modest one, requires money: for faculty stipends or to pay for released time, for project directors and workshop facilitators, for clerical staff, for consultants, and for the expense of providing workshop materials. It is better to overestimate rather than to underestimate these costs. Some projects are fortunate in having one major, large source of funding, perhaps from an outside private foundation or government agency, or from within the institution. Other projects must combine small amounts of money from a variety of sources in order to finance the project, and this strategy is likely to be more

necessary in the future. In either case, various on and off-campus resources should be investigated to find monies for basic support and/or enhancement.

On-Campus Resources

Try to identify all possible sources of funding on your campus. The following are some sources that have been widely used in projects:

- funds (or released time) available through a faculty development office or program
- deans' or other administrators' discretionary funds
- library funds for books and periodicals
- funds of student clubs and student government associations
- departmental and other funds for speakers, film series, art exhibits, dance performances, etc. Keep in mind that planning and organizing a speakers' or film series takes time and effort, and those in charge of monies for such events may well appreciate suggestions and offers of help.
- departmental and other budgets as sources of support for travel, duplicating, printing, and supplies.
- matching funds from the institution for an outside grant

In addition, one should investigate any free campus services that might be available. Librarians, for example, are often willing and able to do computer searches, compile

bibliographies, and provide other types of assistance to a project. Some projects have been able to have one library staff member designated as liaison for the project. The library can also be encouraged to provide special book displays or other exhibits related to the project as a way of publicizing it. Some computer facilities may be available free of charge. Campus radio stations may be enlisted to run programs and announcements regarding the project.

Off-Campus Resources

Possible off-campus resources shouldn't be overlooked. One project obtained the support of off-campus business and professional women's groups that raised money to support the creation of courses relevant to their interests, such as courses in women and work, and women and the law. Bergen Community College created an advisory board that included county community leaders, and such a strategy may be especially appropriate for community colleges, which are likely to be closely tied to their local communities. It is sometimes possible to get donations from local business groups, for example for speakers or events, in exchange for listing them as sponsors in any programs or other publications.

Those planning a project are encouraged to consult the manual, *Funding: Obtaining Money for Curriculum Transformation Projects and Activities*, published by the National Center for Curriculum Transformation Resources on Women for specific advice on where and how to seek funding.

CHAPTER 3

PROJECT MODELS

The heart of any project will be the seminars, workshops, study or discussion groups that involve faculty in reading the new feminist and multicultural scholarship, discussing its relevance and impact on their disciplines, and developing course revisions. As with all other aspects of a project, the model one chooses will depend on the project's specific objectives, time frame, and number and discipline variety of faculty involved. The following models represent those most frequently used.

Workshops/Seminars/Study Groups

The central activity of most curriculum transformation projects is a set of regular meetings in which participants undertake one or more of the following: read and discuss the theory and content of new feminist and multicultural scholarship in their academic disciplines and/or across the disciplines; compile bibliographies; revise courses; create new courses; explore issues of pedagogy and classroom climate (and, often, of institutional change).

Transformation takes time. As Lois Banner concluded in a 1985 survey of early projects, "Episodic workshops, or a single conference, or a one-time visit by a senior scholar

are insufficient" (Banner, 1985, p. 5). On the other hand, if an extended project isn't possible, any activity, however small, may be better than none and should be encouraged. An informal reading or study group, for example, may spark interest among a small group of faculty that can lead to further activity later.

Workshops usually meet on a regular basis, for example, weekly or monthly over the course of a semester or a year, or daily during a concentrated period of a week or several weeks, often during the summer or between semesters. Usually they are led by a facilitator—a faculty member who is familiar with the new scholarship—or by the project director(s). Many projects are now using two facilitators for a workshop, of different ethnicities, as a way of creating or encouraging dialogue and exchange of points of view and of deemphasizing reliance on a single authority.

Depending on the size of the workshop, as well as the project's goals, sessions may consist of all participants working together, or of small groups engaged in focused discussion of course revision, or a combination of the two.

Readings are usually assigned and read in advance, and may be chosen by the facilitator(s) and/or by the faculty participants. A combination of the two is usually desirable: readings selected by the facilitator(s) to begin the workshop and to ensure that important issues are dealt with; readings chosen by or in consultation with the participants so that they may focus on their individual curricular interests and needs and develop a sense of active involvement and commitment. Many projects have commented on the importance of creating a sense of "ownership" of the project among participants, and this can be accomplished by including them in decisions about workshop format, content, and other aspects of the project, such as the choice of consultants and guest speakers.

Depending on the goals of the project, its size, and its participants, workshops may be either discipline-specific or interdisciplinary. In projects involving large numbers of faculty, there may be a series of discipline-specific workshops that are run concurrently, in which groups of faculty learn the new scholarship in their disciplines. Such projects, however, are likely also to include ways of engaging all project faculty with the interdisciplinary issues underlying curriculum change, either within the individual workshops, or perhaps through one or more group meetings of workshops. The Towson State University discipline-focused project (1983-1986), for example, held a two-day conference in the project's second year to explore interdisciplinary issues.

The interdisciplinary focus is important, since it is essential that faculty come to understand the cross-disciplinary nature of the feminist and multicultural challenges to the disciplines and the curriculum: the ways in which this scholarship challenges the basic assumptions, methodologies, paradigms, and ways of constructing knowledge, as well as the actual knowledge content, of all the disciplines—and, indeed, the very division of knowledge into discrete disciplines. Genuine *transformation* of the curriculum, as opposed to merely "adding on" some material about white women and minority groups, can only be achieved through such fundamental questioning.

Paula Ries, who examined course revisions made by 22 faculty at a large public university, concluded that without the interdisciplinary perspective faculty tended to confine themselves to minimal course revision, merely adding on some new readings or a new topic (Ries, 1994, p. 42).

Interdisciplinary understandings are also essential in order to achieve, in the words of Peggy McIntosh, Codirector of SEED, the "systemic understanding of gender, race

and class relations" that is necessary if educators are to develop "the creative flexibility and coherence" needed to deal with feminist scholarship and curriculum transformation. ("SEED Project Description," October 1993, n.p.).

For these reasons, interdisciplinary workshops are frequently preferred. The readings in such workshops are likely to be organized topically or thematically, in order to address issues that cut across disciplines, such as "women and work," or "the family"; or they may be organized around key concepts in feminist and multicultural scholarship, such as "equality and difference," the social construction of race and gender, or "standpoint theory."

Each model has its advantages and disadvantages. In discipline-specific workshops, participants all speak the same academic discourse and can more easily share their knowledge of disciplinary content, assumptions, methodologies, and theories. Such workshops also often enjoy the advantage of a specific focus, such as changing the introductory course. It may thus be easier for facilitators to provide specific materials as models for change, sueh as revised syllabi or revised course units. Discipline-focused workshops may thus achieve more immediate results, make more progress. Furthermore, according to the Association of American Colleges, the "focus on the department as the locus of change is increasingly important in the 1990s, as national curriculum efforts have emphasized assessment of learning and sequencing of knowledge in the major." (Banks and Banks, 1995, p. 717).

On the other hand interdisciplinary workshops may sometimes be more practical, particularly when there are not enough participants in a project to run discipline-specific workshops, or when the goal of the project is to develop interdisciplinary courses, such as those focused on race, gender, or cultural diversity that are increasingly being included in core or general education curricula.

What might be called an intermediate model consists of workshops that group together faculty from related disciplines: workshops with faculty from the arts, or the humanities, or the social sciences, or the natural sciences. These are especially feasible in smaller institutions where individual departments have too few faculty for discipline-specific workshops to be conducted. They may also be desirable in some larger institutions, where the uneven size of departments might exclude faculty from a smaller department from participating in discipline-specific workshops. Grouping together faculty from related disciplines may reduce interdisciplinary conflict because they are more likely to share similar assumptions about knowledge and education. In addition they may see the relevance to their own discipline of new knowledge and change in related disciplines. Thus, changes in one discipline will be stimulated and reinforced by changes in a related discipline, and the workshop may produce a stronger consensus.

Whatever model one adopts, it is important to realize that faculty workshops need to address not only curricular content but pedagogy, not only "conceptual work" but "the realities of the classroom" ("Perspectives," University of Washington, Summer 1994, p. 8). The two are intimately connected, and as faculty teach new and revised courses to an ever more diversified student body, new pedagogies and understanding of the dynamics of the multi-ethnic classroom, are crucial.

Summer Institutes

Frequently, a project will choose to conduct all or much of its activity during the summer, for a period of from

one to several weeks, during which faculty may be in residence on campus.

In this model, parts of the day and evening may be regularly devoted to different but related activities: for example, morning lectures on scholarship in the disciplines or on interdisciplinary topics; afternoon sessions on theory, or workshops for hands-on faculty work, or small group discussions; evenings devoted to poetry readings, theater performances, or videos. The concentrated summer seminar often allows for more sustained, intensive work than does a workshop spread over a semester or a year. If faculty are living together during the summer seminar, it can also facilitate the development of stronger personal relationships, which can translate into more cooperative and ongoing work during the regular academic year.

Having faculty organized in teams for summer institutes works well for various participant groups. Faculty groups can work in interdisciplinary teams, organizing their work around several common themes. This assists faculty in sharing texts and pedagogical approaches across disciplines as well as broadening the context of topics and themes generally perceived as the purview of a given discipline. Faculty and administrators can work in teams, discussing and planning for making connections between changes in curricula and related institutional processes and structures. The statewide Washington Center/University of Washington Cultural Pluralism Project (1992-1995) co-directed by Johnnella Butler, Barbara Leigh Smith, and Jean MacGregor, reports success of faculty/administrator teams in helping campuses develop a point of view about cultural pluralism in the curriculum; in forging stronger links between Student Affairs and Academic Affairs; in networking on campus and among campuses; as well as in significant course changes.

Some projects, including consortial ones, hold summer seminars for a selected group of faculty with the intention of training them as facilitators or leaders who will conduct workshops with other faculty on their individual campuses during the following academic year. The SEED Project annually holds a week-long Summer Leaders' Workshop which prepares 40 secondary school teachers to conduct year-long reading groups with other teachers at their institutions. A project at SUNY in 1989-1990 trained 29 faculty in a week-long summer institute to become consultants on individual campuses in the SUNY system that were undertaking curriculum transformation work.

To sustain and reinforce the interest created in the summer seminar, it is important to provide some means by which the work can be continued during the academic year. Projects frequently ask summer participants to present their work to other faculty at their institution, or, if they are currently implementing changes in the classroom, they are asked to meet with other project members to discuss the results. The New Jersey State Project (1986-), which has curriculum transformation work taking place at diverse campuses, organizes regular statewide meetings at rotating campus sites to provide an opportunity for faculty from the different campuses to discuss their curriculum transformation efforts.

Consortial Projects

Consortial projects, in which several campuses or institutions participate in a project, are more complicated to design than those conducted on a single campus: they require a greater initial investment in planning and more administrative and supervisory staff to conduct. However,

they can have many advantages. A consortium of schools within a limited geographical area can share resources, such as library materials, teachers, and consultants, which can significantly reduce the costs of a project. Such consortia may especially increase the resources available to two and four year colleges working in conjunction with a large university. In addition, consortial projects are likely to have a broader impact over a specific region than an isolated, individual project.

Consortial projects can allow faculty to work with colleagues from area institutions in ways that are productive and seldom available otherwise. This opportunity to engage in serious and ongoing dialogue with faculty from other institutions can be an important incentive for faculty participation in a project. Workshops composed of faculty from several institutions may be more stimulating for those faculty who believe they already know their own colleagues very well. Such workshops may also reduce the replication of entrenched debates or loyalties.

Consortial projects may begin with one or more workshops or summer seminar sessions, usually held at the host campus, to train faculty leaders from the various participating campuses. These leaders then return to their own institutions where they conduct faculty workshops. In addition, administrators and librarians are sometimes included in the introductory workshop or summer seminar. In consortial projects that cover several years, a different group of participants from each campus may attend the annual introductory workshop.

Examples of consortial projects conducted in the 1980s include the Western States, Northern Rockies, Great Lakes Colleges Association, and University of Wisconsin System. More recent ones include an NSF diversity project involving eight colleges and the University of South Carolina

(1992-1994), whose goals included curriculum revision, faculty retention and improving campus climate; the New Jersey State Project, "Towards an Inclusive Curriculum," begun in 1986 and still in progress; the Ford Foundation's "Mainstreaming Minority Women's Studies" project (1986-1990), which involved 13 institutions nation-wide; Towson State University's Community College project (1988-1990), which involved five schools; and Ford's Community College Project, "Curriculum Mainstreaming and Teaching Initiative" (1993-1995), which included 14 schools. In addition, the SEED project (1987-) is a consortial project for K-12 teachers throughout the United States and several countries abroad. A large current consortial project is the American Association of Colleges and Universities' "American Commitments: Diversity, Democracy and Liberal Learning," which involves 157 institutions in activities designed to create curricula that will reflect the cultural diversity of the United States.

Those interested in consortial projects are encouraged to consult the National Center's *Directory: Curriculum Transformation Projects and Activities in the U.S.* for detailed descriptions of such projects, including those named in the above paragraphs.

It is likely that consortial projects will become more important and necessary in the future. So far, with significant exceptions like the SEED project, and an ACLS initiative involving collaboration between universities and secondary schools at several sites throughout the country, most curriculum transformation has occurred within liberal arts-based colleges and universities. What is needed, as Betty Schmitz et al. have recently pointed out, are more collaborations between such institutions and schools of education, professional schools, K-12 and Boards of Education, as well as more work in community colleges and

tribal schools. Such collaborations will undoubtedly lead to new consortial models (Schmitz et al., 1995).

Using Outside Speakers and Consultants

Curriculum projects often use outside speakers and consultants—scholars in the academic disciplines and/or people experienced in the work of curriculum transformation—both to help give initial visibility to a project and to assist and motivate faculty during the course of the project. Frequently, distinguished scholars or curriculum specialists are used to help launch a project or, at an even earlier stage, to help generate campus interest in undertaking a project. Those planning a project might, for example, invite such a person to deliver an address at an all-campus convocation or faculty development meeting that is designed to familiarize the entire campus community with the subject of curriculum transformation. The reputations of such outside speakers may help to persuade skeptical or unaware faculty or administrators of the legitimacy and importance of curriculum transformation work. In addition, as outsiders to the campus community, such speakers may be able to articulate points of view that members of the campus community would need to express more circumspectly.

Although an individual may be both a scholar in the discipline and experienced in curriculum change work, usually these are different people, and a project needs to decide which it wants for a particular stage of a project. Each offers distinctive, although complementary, kinds of help. Scholars can inspire and inform, through the depth of their knowledge in disciplinary and interdisciplinary areas

and by demonstrating the extent to which feminist and multicultural scholarship has been developed within and has begun to transform a discipline. They can provide specific, focused reading materials that will assist faculty in grasping the new scholarship and its implications.

Consultants with actual experience in curriculum transformation, on the other hand, can provide advice on the strategies and dynamics of conducting curriculum projects, as well as advice on how to revise syllabi, create new courses, and change pedagogy. They are more likely to be able to address pragmatic classroom issues. While faculty may find pleasure and intellectual stimulation in exploring the new scholarship, getting that scholarship into the classroom, through new course content and perspectives and through effective teaching techniques, is the ultimate goal of curriculum transformation.

The many ways in which projects have used visiting scholars and consultants include having them consult with the planning committee on the design of the project, give public lectures, conduct workshop sessions, supply reading materials and bibliography, critique syllabi, advise on pedagogy, visit classes, teach a model class, meet with students, and meet individually with project faculty.

It is important to realize, however, as project director Marjorie Pryse at SUNY Plattsburgh, for example, has noted, that such outside scholars and consultants are only one ingredient in a project (Pryse, 1992). One or several "big names" will not guarantee the success of a project. Furthermore, some outstanding scholars may not be effective as speakers. Ramapo College in New Jersey reported that their first speaker, whom they had not chosen carefully, was ineffective, and the project lost momentum from the start. They advise not inviting any speaker one has not personally heard or received recommendations about.

Additionally, over-reliance on outside "experts" may in some circumstances risk alienating faculty. Thus, Bergen Community College stressed the importance of having project faculty feel that "the project belonged to them rather than to outside experts brought in to impose reform," and they therefore scheduled lectures by their own faculty rather than inviting guest speakers from outside (Kievitt and Silverberg, 1990, p. 41). This was also the experience at UCLA in the Ford Ethnic Women's Curriculum Transformation Project, which decreased the number of outside consultants and used more of their own ethnic faculty and their research in the workshops (Rowe, 1994, p. 32).

Nevertheless, the specific advice and services that consultants provide can supplement in valuable ways what is available on the project's own campus. Often, because they are from outside the institution and not involved in any campus politics, they will be listened to and better heard. In addition, because consultants are experienced, they are more likely to identify problems, for example in how workshops are being conducted, before they become entrenched (Rothenberg, 1994, p. 293).

What needs to be emphasized is choosing consultants carefully. Investigate those who are available; get advice from other projects and institutions similar to your own regarding consultants they found valuable; aim for a good fit between the consultants and your own faculty. Above all, *use* the consultants you invite as fully and creatively as possible. Prepare them in advance to be effective in your setting by sending them sufficient information about your project and your specific requests for their services. Be clear about what the consultant is expected to do. Some projects send consultants fairly detailed information about the interests and activities of faculty in the particular work-

shop(s) the consultant will work with, rather than having her spend valuable workshop time acquiring this information. If possible, use a consultant throughout the project and not just for a single visit; that way, she can provide continuous feedback.

Towson State University, Baltimore, MD

CHAPTER 4

CONDUCTING A WORKSHOP

The success of any faculty workshop, seminar, or study group will depend on a large number of factors: the knowledge, leadership skills and sensitivity of the workshop facilitator(s), the effectiveness of the readings, and, above all, the complex personal as well as professional interactions of the participants with each other, with the workshop leader(s), and indeed with themselves. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that curriculum transformation is in the final analysis a process of personal transformation. More than merely the acquisition of new knowledge, it demands from most if not all faculty changes in attitudes and in values. These changes may be experienced as exhilarating, or as disturbing and even threatening. Workshop leaders therefore need to think carefully not only about the readings they will assign and the topics they will cover, but about the processes of personal and professional change and the ways in which positive change can best be encouraged and achieved.

One project leader has identified three elements necessary for a successful workshop: a process that fosters discussion, debate, and absorption of information over time; expectation or demand for a product, for example a revised syllabus; and peer support (Rowe, 1991). What follows in this chapter and the next are some suggestions, based on the

experience of previous projects, that may be helpful to project directors and workshop facilitators as they plan workshops and then, in conducting them, experience and deal with the dynamics, including resistance, they will likely encounter.

Workshop Content

Although curriculum transformation involves "content," this new knowledge should lead to new perspectives and new understandings for both faculty and students. What is involved in curriculum transformation, to quote Paula Rothenberg, Director of the New Jersey State project, is "exposing students [and we can add, faculty] to critical perspectives on the past and present and teaching them to rethink basic categories of perception and analysis and metaphor, to examine alternative paradigms and models" (Rothenberg, 1994, p. 293).

Reading materials that provide the new knowledge and perspectives are a central part of just about every curriculum transformation workshop or seminar. Facilitators need to allow time to plan carefully in advance what materials they will use, and in what sequence, and provide copies, while also allowing for changes based on participants' responses and on identifying new needs as one moves through the workshop.

It should be emphasized, however, that no one set of materials is ever ideal, essential, or "correct." There is no "canon" of materials for curriculum transformation projects, and what works at one institution or with certain faculty may not work at other institutions or with other faculty. The specific disciplines represented by workshop members often affect reading selections. On the other hand, reading lists

and copies of materials that have been reported to be effective by project directors, or that have been used by now in several projects, may be useful to those planning projects. Many such lists and materials are available from projects listed in the National Center's *Directory: Curriculum Transformation Projects and Activities in the U.S.*, and from the National Center itself.

There is general agreement that the following kinds of readings are useful in curriculum transformation workshops and seminars: readings in feminist and multicultural theory, including definitions of key terms and concepts; analyses of the traditional content of the disciplines, their ways of creating and constructing knowledge, and their historical development that accounts for their curricular orientations; readings in the new feminist and multicultural scholarship in the disciplines; and materials on curriculum transformation theory and practice. The latter can include syllabi, bibliographies, revised textbooks, and materials dealing with pedagogy and classroom climate.

Some projects create individual packets of material for their workshop participants. These may include, for example, significant essays in feminist theory, general readings on curriculum transformation, materials specific to each participant's discipline, bibliographies, sample syllabi, and lists of library resources.

How to sequence, combine, or interrelate the various kinds of materials will likely depend on the workshop's goals and the level of the participants' knowledge. Start wherever you and they feel most comfortable. Some projects have begun with large theoretical issues and discipline critiques and then moved to specific course revision. Others have begun with new "content" readings, then moved to theory, and finally to course revision. One recent project urges that course revision be a focus throughout the

workshop and not be confined to the last few sessions where faculty report on their changed syllabi.

Whatever one's choice, it is important to recognize that both theoretical and practical materials are needed. Practical materials without the theory are likely to lead only to superficial change; tools such as sample revised syllabi can be useful but should not substitute for participants doing their own thinking. Theory alone, on the other hand, leaves some faculty dissatisfied and unable to translate it into curriculum practice.

Basic Questions

Leaders of curriculum transformation projects suggest that faculty often benefit from returning to the most basic questions about their disciplines and their teaching, questions that they tend to take for granted and therefore may not have directly addressed for years.

Betty Schmitz has suggested the following as questions likely to be addressed in any curriculum transformation workshop:

1. What are the underlying assumptions, principles, or norms of your discipline? What kind of knowledge is valued?

2. What kind of teaching style is valued by those in your discipline?

3. Who are your students? What do they need to know?

4. How would your discipline have to change to incorporate previously excluded groups? (Fiol-Matta, 1994, p. 141).

Other project directors have provided more detailed checklists and guidelines. Those planning workshops might wish to consult Liza Fiol-Matta's "Litmus Tests for Curriculum Transformation" (Fiol-Matta, 1994, pp. 42-43) and the guidelines to syllabus redesign of Marilyn R. Schuster and Susan Van Dyne. The latter consist of sets of questions for courses in the humanities, social sciences, and sciences that address the basic components of any syllabus—goal, content, organization, and method—that can help facilitate rethinking and transformation (Schuster and Van Dyne, 1985, pp. 279-290).

Such questions and checklists orient the discussion to fundamental issues of education, course construction, teachers' roles, and student outcomes, as well as the contents and methodologies of the disciplines, and suggest the larger frame of reference in terms of which curriculum transformation needs to be understood.

Processes of Course Change

In addition to such checklists and guidelines, there have been several ways in which project directors and workshop leaders have sought to conceptualize the processes of course revisions and faculty change in curriculum transformation projects. Recently, Sara Coulter has created an eleven point chart to describe a representative process of faculty change and development. As faculty progress through a series of questions about curriculum transformation and course revisions, they can be provided with specific resources, described in the chart, to respond to their needs. The chart also describes the likely results, in terms of new awareness and conceptualizations, to be achieved at each stage of the developmental process.

One of the best known methods of charting the progress of course revision is phase or stage theory (McIntosh, 1983; Schuster and Van Dyne, 1985; Tetreault, 1985), which describes changes in courses or scholarship in terms of the degree and nature of inclusion of women and people of color. Early stages move from an initial condition of absence to the addition of a few "exceptional" women, to studying women as a disadvantaged or subordinate group. Later stages move from studying women on their own terms, in all their diversity, thereby challenging the traditional paradigms of the disciplines, to reconceptualizing the paradigms in order to achieve more inclusive scholarship and curriculum.

Phase or stage theory can be a useful workshop tool because it can be used to provide an overview of different kinds of curriculum change, a way to help faculty see where they currently are with their courses, and a way to measure change or revision. Some projects introduce stage theory early in a workshop. Richard Stockton College of New Jersey (1985-1989), for example, found it helpful for faculty to see that they might be at different phases or stages in different courses they taught. This awareness helped diffuse some tension and sense of impotence. They also found that those faculty whose courses were at more complex stages of development could help those in simpler ones (Ashton, 1990, p. 46). The project director at SUNY Plattsburgh similarly used stage theory to give faculty a sense of "going somewhere," while, however, avoiding the implication that stages needed to be arrived at in some specific order (Pryse, 1992, p. 68).

Indeed, creators of versions of phase or stage theory, such as McIntosh and Tetreault, themselves caution against assuming that change will or should occur in a set sequence. McIntosh describes not distinct stages but "Interactive

Phases of Personal and Curricular Re-Vision" (McIntosh 1983: 1-2). Tetreault observes that "neither disciplines nor individuals progress systematically from one stage at a time" (Tetreault, 1985, p. 366 n.1).

Other reservations have been raised about stage theory, in addition to the danger of reading it too linearly or hierarchically, or of reifying the stages. Some critics challenged it for ignoring race and also suggested that it be linked with stages formulated for multicultural education. In 1990 McIntosh expanded her 1983 essay in order to focus on race, in "Interactive Phases of Curricular and Personal Re-Vision with Regard to Race"; and in 1993 James A. Banks produced a version of stage theory that addressed integrating ethnic content into the curriculum.

Used flexibly, phase or stage theory, as well as Coulter's description of the stages of faculty change, can provide projects with schema that enable them to set non-threatening goals and to recognize that different faculty are likely to be at different stages of awareness. One researcher who evaluated course change in a large curriculum transformation project has suggested that phase or stage theory is best viewed as a "heuristic device to facilitate thinking about knowledge change" rather than as a way of assessing "progress" (Ries, 1994, p. 39).

In three Appendices to this manual we reproduce Coulter's stages of faculty change chart (Appendix I); phase/stage theory as formulated by McIntosh, Tetreault, and Schuster and Van Dyne (Appendix II); and Banks's stage theory chart for integrating ethnic content into the curriculum (Appendix III).

Workshop Dynamics

The dynamics in curriculum transformation workshops may intensify traditional faculty behavior with one another and introduce new sources of both satisfaction and stress. Faculty traditionally operate in terms of a disciplinary culture that is unconscious until they are brought into contact with other disciplinary cultures, which does not happen very often in departmentally segregated institutions. Their response to another set of disciplinary values can be arrogance, intolerance, and irritation as well as interest, appreciation, and creative thinking.

Even within the same discipline there are civil wars that may ignite once again in the workshop setting. Since debate is the traditional mode of intellectual discourse, contention may be a necessary part of the process of understanding and communication, and its intensity may be the result of other covert conflicts more than of the material at hand. There are also sometimes surprisingly few opportunities for faculty, even within the same department and teaching sections of the same course, to discuss their course syllabi and teaching philosophies, and their interest in doing so may initially overwhelm the more specific purposes of the workshop, with general discussions of the course threatening to distract from the workshop focus on women or gender in the course. Faculty are trained to be skeptical and cautious, to demand proof for new ideas, to fear being wrong or exposing their ignorance, and to avoid taking risks. They are sensitive to differences in rank and status. All of this is likely to be part of the dynamics of any workshop.

Curriculum transformation, however, introduces new issues and demands a great deal from faculty. They are being asked to question, and not only to modify but often to

discard, much of the learning and many of the practices and values on which they have built their professional careers. They are expected to question the content, norms and assumptions of their disciplines, the ways they have taught, and their beliefs about higher education and the academy—how it is structured, whom it serves or should serve and how it should do so. In addition, as projects for an inclusive curriculum deal not only with issues of gender but with race, ethnicity, class, and sexual preference, participants are asked to confront their own racial, ethnic, class, and sexual as well as gender assumptions and biases.

Workshop leaders, who are usually faculty themselves, confront major challenges in keeping a workshop on course and the participants motivated and committed to the work. More than is usually necessary in their roles as faculty, workshop leaders must think about group dynamics and play the role of facilitator rather than authority. Those who have led workshops in curriculum transformation projects offer the following advice:

Expectations

- Make clear both short and long term goals of the project.

  The short term goal may be a product such as a revised or new course syllabus or a bibliography. Some specific product should be expected from each participant.

  The long term goal—full curriculum transformation—is a long *process*, not some specific product. Getting faculty to see that a process of continued rethinking and of intellectual and personal

change is the long-range goal may both relieve the pressure to "perform" too quickly and help create the psychological and emotional space in which change can occur.

Atmosphere

- Establish an atmosphere of trust and common cause.

  Create in the workshops "a comfortable atmosphere where people can talk and ask questions that can be perceived as unsophisticated, stupid or uninformed," says one of the project directors at University of Wisconsin-Madison (1989-1992). The project tried to create such an atmosphere by having the facilitator ask basic questions that faculty may be afraid to ask ("Summary," 1990, p. 3).

- Expect some apprehension, anxiety, and discouragement: faculty may be apprehensive at not knowing the materials well and at not having the time to read the new scholarship. They need to be reassured that curriculum transformation is a slow process, and that there are no magic two or three texts whose inclusion in the syllabi would mean that their course has been transformed" ("Summary," 1990, p. 3).

Ownership and Participation

- Involve faculty in planning and organizing some workshop sessions. After the workshop has been well-established, some projects have rotated the

leadership, with each participant or a pair responsible for planning and leading one session. At UCLA the workshop facilitators worked with faculty to identify and choose weekly readings.

- Have each participant write out what he/she considers the goals of a course being revised. If all are working on the same course, for example an introductory survey course, have them then create a composite document.

- Plan to have faculty share their personal experiences, for example of sexism or racism, in their own lives and in their classroom to achieve greater friendliness and break down barriers.

- Conclude each session with a question to which members write a response, to be read and discussed at the next meeting.

- Have a part of each meeting devoted to an account by one participant on how she/he is moving toward a transformed course.

- Divide workshop participants into small study groups or groups working collectively on revising a syllabus, so that they can interact more fully with each other.

CHAPTER 5

DEALING WITH RESISTANCE

Given the challenges that curriculum transformation presents to faculty, resistance—ranging from anxiety, skepticism and indifference to hostility and rejection—will almost inevitably occur in workshops, as faculty confront new materials, intellectual concepts, and pedagogies that challenge and unsettle their traditional professional practices and ways of thinking. Participants, including workshop facilitators, may experience inner tensions and conflicts. Almost inevitably there will be intra-group tensions, given gender, race, age and other differences among participants. There may also be suspicions and animosities directed toward the workshop facilitators, and tensions between facilitators who are codirecting a workshop. Even faculty who are most sympathetic to the goals of creating an inclusive curriculum may at various points in the work experience either conscious or unconscious resistance to aspects of it. Much of this resistance can most constructively be seen as what Peggy McIntosh has termed "necessary turbulence"—the creative agitation that invariably accompanies personal and professional change.

An extensive discussion of resistance was written by members of the University of Arizona curriculum transformation project, who reported their experience in an article first published in *Signs* in 1987 and then in *Changing Our Minds:*

Feminist Transformations of Knowledge in 1988. In what follows we draw heavily on their report, as well as on the experience of more recent projects. Recent projects with a more multicultural focus have especially revealed tensions due to racial and ethnic differences among participants.

Kinds of Resistance

Not all projects, of course, will encounter all of the tensions or kinds of resistance described below. However, anticipating possibilities, especially in terms of the particular mix of faculty one is working with, can encourage project directors and workshop facilitators to think in advance about possible strategies they might use to deflect hostility, redirect indifference, clarify misunderstanding, and moderate tensions. Among the resistances likely to be encountered in curriculum transformation projects are:

Evasion and Denial

- selective or superficial reading and listening
- deflecting the discussion onto tangents
- politely agreeing but making only superficial changes
- arguing that they are already doing transformation work and therefore do not need to address their own biases or assumptions
- resisting theoretical readings in general, requesting instead primarily preassembled "how-to" classroom materials that they might fit into their otherwise unchanged courses

- accepting feminist critiques on the abstract level but without connecting with the material or connecting the material to their own professional or personal lives
- refusing to acknowledge male power and privilege
- refusing to believe that women are or have been significantly oppressed, and that therefore there is no serious problem to be addressed, that small or cosmetic changes are adequate
- defining diversity as mere variety, thereby refusing to confront the issue of the unequal distribution of power that is involved in understanding cultural diversity and difference. In sociology, for example, gender and ethnicity may simply be seen as two among many demographic variables rather than as central categories of analysis (Oliver, 1994, p. 66).
- refusing to acknowledge significant differences between the oppressions of white women and women of color or seeing the oppression of women of color as racial but not gendered

Defense of Tradition or of Disciplines

- persisting in a biological explanation of women's status in society and/or of race
- arguing that feminist scholarship is ideological and subjective but traditional scholarship is objective and neutral
- becoming defensive and protective of their discipline; refusing to accept the challenge of

rethinking (and often discarding) knowledge and methodologies in which they've been trained

- arguing that their course is already full and they cannot cut or do not know where to cut; being preoccupied with "what to cut"
- in interdisciplinary workshops, claiming ownership of a text and refusing to accept critiques or discussion of it by those outside the discipline that "owns" it
- in interdisciplinary workshops, difficulty or refusal to deal with the discourses and specialized jargons of different disciplines
- retaining a "we" versus "them" attitude, or what UCLA calls an "insider/outsider" psychology, in which ethnic groups are seen as separate, and therefore unequal. UCLA found that this attitude, which is a variant on the "objective/subjective" one, was especially difficult to dislodge (Rowe, 1994, p. 32)

Rejection of Feminist and Multicultural Scholarship

- difficulty with or resistance to learning feminist concepts and terminology, e.g. "gender," "patriarchy"
- rejecting new materials, for example literature or art by women, as not meeting the standards of excellence established in the discipline; perceiving new materials as "watering down" the curriculum

- dismissing the cultural traditions and works of art of women of color and ethnic groups as not meeting certain standards of "excellence"
- dismissing the scholarship of women of color as not sufficiently scholarly or as not good scholarship, as lacking methodological rigor

Rejection of Authority of Women and of Men of Color

- difficulty accepting women, whether facilitators or participants, as experts
- resistance based on power relationships, for example between female workshop facilitators and male workshop members, or between senior men and junior women
- not hearing what a female facilitator or faculty member says but hearing it when a male faculty member says it
- refusing to accept the scholarly authority, points of view, or experiences of women and men of color, whether as workshop leaders or as participants

> In a Sociology workshop at UCLA, for example, "several sociologists were quick to reinterpret, negate, or even disbelieve" "aspects of ethnic women's concrete historical and contemporary experiences" where these challenged discipline-based paradigms (Oliver, 1994, p. 68).

Defeat

- feeling overwhelmed by the extent and implications of the new critiques of knowledge in the disciplines and giving up

Many of these resistances are today exacerbated by the greater demands that projects for an inclusive curriculum make on their participants. Not only must white male workshop members deal with gender issues (the focus of the Arizona project), but white women must confront the hitherto exclusionary practices of women's studies and their own racial and ethnic assumptions and biases. As Charlotte Bunch points out, white women, especially, must be careful about adopting attitudes towards women of color of which they may not always be consciously aware. These include becoming defensive when there is disagreement or dispute over meanings and interpretations; overpersonalizing issues; withdrawing from the discussion; becoming weary or resentful when a particular issue, such as lesbianism, is repeatedly raised; and trying to limit minority women to addressing only "their" issues (Bunch, 1990, pp. 49-60).

In addition, faculty in curriculum transformation projects are themselves a more diverse group than previously, including more women and men of color, and this can create additional tensions and misunderstandings. As Johnnella Butler and Betty Schmitz have stated, "for women and men of color and white women, attempting to work collaboratively on the shared goal of a more inclusive curriculum can be painful, divisive, and even explosive." And Karen Rowe, project director at UCLA, also emphasizes the "painful insensitivities," and the "profound cultural misunderstandings and miscommunication" that can arise and did arise among participants. (Butler and Schmitz, 1991, p. 62; Rowe, 1994, p. 30).

Strategies for Dealing with Resistance

There are no easy answers to the problems described in the above lists. However, the following strategies and approaches, developed in various projects, may be helpful.

1. Make the feminist and multicultural principles on which the project is based explicit from the beginning, and be prepared to explain and discuss them often.

2. Deal openly with the charge that a project is "political," "too political," or "politically correct." As Liza Fiol-Matta, director of the Ford Mainstreaming Minority Women's Studies project, has stated, "The political nature of curriculum integration cannot be avoided, as inclusion of the scholarship about and by minority women is not only working against ignorance and apathy. It is overtly antiracist, anticlassist, and antisexist work." ("Summary," 1990, p. 1).

   Paula Rothenberg argues indeed that introducing the issue of politicization oneself is the "only successful strategy." It allows one to set the terms of the debate, to show that curriculum change is political in that it involves issues of power and empowerment, and to avoid the opposition's tendency to polarize "education" and "politics" as incompatible. Rothenberg advocates presenting "a vision of a curriculum of inclusion linked to issues of social justice and intellectual rigor," to which she believes faculty will respond. (Rothenberg, 1994, p. 94).

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3. Define curriculum transformation in such a way as to allay resistance based on participants' fears of the overwhelming nature of the change and its threats to the disciplines. Marjorie Pryse suggests having the workshop group as a whole work towards a collective understanding of what an inclusive curriculum at their institution might mean, and encouraging them to see it as a *process* of "growth and incremental change" (Pryse, 1992, p. 68). This emphasis on process is underscored by many other projects.

   In a related observation, Karen Rowe suggests presenting new materials and points of view as examples of "the expanding boundaries of scholarship within the disciplines rather than as a direct assault upon existing analytic models" in order to defuse resistance (Rowe, 1994, p. 32).

   However, be careful not to encourage, especially in resistant faculty, a false sense of satisfaction with the degree of change achieved. As the Arizona project observed, faculty and some administrators may be eager to believe that small changes represent sufficient change (Aiken et al., 1988, p. 157).

4. Make time within the workshop for faculty to examine their own assumptions regarding gender, race, ethnicity, class, and sexuality—time, that is, for the emotional and personal dimensions of the curriculum change process. Different projects have used different strategies or procedures in order to encourage such self-examination.

   Several projects, for example, have encouraged workshop participants to keep journals in which

they recorded their reactions to the workshop sessions, including any resistance they experienced. These were then read anonymously and used for workshop discussion. The project at George Washington University (1989-1992) used a procedure called "check-in," where, for the first half-hour of each session, each participant responded to a common question, such as "What were your feelings and thoughts after leaving the first session." "Check-in," according to project director Phyllis Palmer, "allowed participants to express negative feelings and anxieties as well as positive ones; it clarified that participants could find acceptance for their genuine feelings and not just for being 'nice'—and it vented anger" (Palmer, 1994, p. 51).

5. Another strategy is to encourage faculty to experience outsider or marginal status. In a sociology seminar at UCLA, consultant Barrie Thorne asked each faculty to recall and tell their own experiences of marginalization within the classroom (Oliver, 1994, p. 67). According to Paula Ries, experiencing such outsider or marginal status leads to more significant course change; it "facilitates a scholar's receptivity to innovation" (Ries, 1994, p. 41).

   The positive effects of experiencing such marginal status were also noted by the leaders of an interdisciplinary seminar at UCLA, Charlotte Heth and Richard Yarborough. They describe what they call a "pedagogy of dislocation," which occurs when participants must learn the language of another discipline. Although this need to go beyond one's own discipline can be a source of resistance, as other projects have reported, for

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Heth and Yarborough, "The challenge of learning the language of another discipline prompted some of the most intense self-scrutiny among scholars, who often felt themselves "de-authorized" and repositioned as students who must learn to cope with new realms of inquiry" (Heth and Yarborough, 1994, p. 100).

6. Be sensitive to tensions and resistances that result from the different professional status of workshop members: between senior and junior faculty, and between faculty and graduate students. An American Ethnic Studies Seminar at UCLA experienced such tensions, where junior faculty and graduate students felt inhibited, while senior faculty felt constrained in talking about issues like affirmative action to which junior faculty were especially sensitive. These tensions meant there was a reluctance to have open debate. These power and status imbalances need to be openly addressed, probably at the very outset of any faculty workshop (Sundquist, 1994, p. 116-117).

7. Introduce discussion of the biological "argument" for gender differences early in the project, since it comes up so frequently and is likely to be held by many faculty.

8. Don't spend unnecessary time or energy on those participants whom you realize can't be changed or won't significantly change during the course of the project. On the other hand, consider seeing some faculty who resist as, in the words of Marjorie Pryse, "'stuck' in 'a growth process' but 'perhaps not irrevocably'" (Pryse, 1992, p. 70).

9. Whether one should directly confront the issue of male resistance is unclear. Arizona reported that using articles such as William Goode's "Why Men Resist" led to "profound levels of hostility" (Aiken, 1988, p. 148). SUNY Brockport (1987-1990), on the other hand, reported good results using this article in a graduate seminar.

   Stockton State College recommends using senior (white) male faculty who are sympathetic to curriculum change as presenters. (Ashton, 1990, p. 48).

Above all, recognize that it is often through the experience of conflict and tension that differences and misunderstandings can be clarified and new understandings achieved. Resistance cannot be avoided, but recognizing its sources may lead to constructive change. In addition, conflicts within a workshop or seminar may mirror the misunderstandings, tensions, and resistances of students that faculty will encounter in the classroom. Skillfully dealt with, such conflicts can become valuable tools for increased faculty sensitivity to classroom situations and for revised pedagogical procedures.

CHAPTER 6

EVALUATING THE PROJECT

First-time directors of curriculum transformation projects often do not think about the need for evaluating the impact of their project until it is too late to collect the data. Perhaps in their minds, they do not see the project as continuing beyond the time period of the project activities. Yet, frequently, they may later want to repeat the project, extend it, or start a new, modified project. In this case, they need evaluation data to convince potential funders, administrators, and colleagues of the value of what has already been done.

Reasons for Evaluating Projects

There are three good reasons why evaluation should be included in a curriculum transformation project: (a) to give information about the project; (b) to provide evidence helpful in securing funding for future projects; and (c) to persuade the skeptical at home.

Information About the Project

Carefully conducted evaluation research can not only tell us something about the overall value of a project to its

participants and their students; if it is constructed in the appropriate way it can give information on which aspects of the project are the most valuable, and which could be dispensed with or minimized.

For example, suppose that half-way through a three-year project which holds summer workshops with outside speakers and intensive participant reading, evaluation research results suggest that the summer workshops have considerable impact on faculty thinking, but that the impact comes mainly from the individual reading and discussion among peers, and not so much from the outside speakers. This could be valuable information, particularly if the project is running short of money, and the leaders are looking for places to cut. (It also is information which would be useful to future project directors who are designing their projects.) In fact, information on the utility of various internal components of a project often is more interesting and has more practical value than global (and therefore somewhat vague) information on the overall project.

Support for Initial and Future Funding

Increasingly, funding agencies expect there to be an evaluation component in the design of the project they are considering funding. If there is none, frequently they will ask the authors of the proposal to incorporate an evaluation plan. Funders are concerned about obtaining evidence of the effectiveness of the funded project.

In addition, when one is applying for a second round of funding, the agencies often ask to see the results of prior project evaluations as evidence that such projects accomplished some or all of what they were designed to accomplish. As an experienced grant-getter once said, "Nothing is so persuasive to a grant reviewer as

accomplishments already achieved." How do we know that curriculum transformation projects really do some good? Perhaps they are just time-wasters, or perhaps they are "preaching to the converted." Solidly-based research results about the number of faculty who changed their courses as a result of a prior project, or the number of students who were reached, begin the process of convincing funders that something worthwhile occurred.

Convincing funders is greatly facilitated if there is evidence of change in faculty or student attitudes or behavior. Demonstrating such change requires more elaborate methods, such as comparing pre-project and post-project measures taken from participants (the "experimental group") to pre- and post- measures taken from a "control group" of carefully-matched non-participants. The presentation of simple descriptive statistics followed by more sophisticated evidence of impact can play an important role in the grant-getting process.

Funding agencies differ considerably in the amount and kinds of evaluation methods they expect or require. Some may be satisfied with results of simple faculty or student questionnaires administered after workshops or lectures, or at the end of the project. Others may want to see comparisons of the group of participants to an equally-matched group of non-participants, or to see measures of concrete changes with before- and after-project comparisons. The need for persuasive evidence is even more urgent, perhaps, for projects with a women's studies or multicultural studies focus, because these fields are often viewed with suspicion as being soft or devoid of content by those reviewers who have achieved fame as statistical and methodological giants in other more traditional fields .

Persuading the Skeptical at Home

Evaluation research results can also be used in the home institution to persuade the skeptical among colleagues and administrators that curriculum transformation projects bring about desirable change. As one provost remarked, "I needed to persuade the President that putting money into this faculty development effort was not wasting it."

Types of Evaluation

Needs Assessment

A needs assessment study helps identify goals, outcomes, problems, or conditions which should be addressed in planning a project. A needs assessment can help provide justification for the project in the first place, pointing to weaknesses or problems that the project might help correct. A needs assessment might interview faculty to see how many feel comfortable with the depth of knowledge they have about gender, race and ethnicity, and class issues, pertinent to the courses they are teaching; or it might ask students how many of the courses they are taking include a substantial concentration on the experiences of and conditions affecting women. A needs assessment might ask, What needs attention? What should our curriculum try to accomplish?

Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation provides data about how the project is proceeding, data which is useful to the project directors in knowing how to modify the project while it is

underway in order to improve it while it is in process. It will produce data that give information on how well the project is progressing, and if the goals of the project are being achieved. A formative evaluation addresses the questions, How can the program be improved? Are the program's important characteristics being implemented? Which activities best accomplish each objective?

Summative Evaluation

Summative evaluation collects and presents information about the impact of the project on its participants. It often involves comparisons of outcome data collected on those who experienced the project to outcomes for a similar group of people who did not experience the project. A summative evaluation addresses such questions as, Did the project lead to goal achievement? Is the project effective with different kinds of participants? What were the effects of the project or its various components?

Approaches to Evaluation

Quantitative Approaches

Quantitative studies usually try to measure specific outcomes, and to judge how effective the project was in meeting these outcomes. They may rate, classify, or quantify predefined aspects of project implementation. They often utilize experimental designs, employ control groups, and compare the results of pre-project measures to post-project measures.

Qualitative Approaches

Qualitative methods of evaluation are favored by many feminist researchers. Using these methods, the evaluator tries to understand the project as a whole, gaining information from direct contact and experience with the project and the participants, and using more naturalistic methods of gathering data, such as observation, interviews, or case studies. Qualitative approaches are particularly useful if the goal is to understand the dynamics of project processes, or if there is a need to add depth and meaning to quantitative results.

Combined Approaches

The most effective form of evaluation probably uses both qualitative and quantitative methods. The researchers might make observations through participation in small-group sessions, at the same time that they administer questionnaires at the end of the project, for example.

Deciding What to Measure

One of the most crucial, and also perhaps most difficult, parts of designing an evaluation is to decide what to measure. What features of the project are the most critical or valuable to describe? Is there enough time and money to study those features?

Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987) list five aspects of a project that could be examined: (a) context characteristics (sociopolitical factors, time frame, budget); (b) participant characteristics (age, sex, socioeconomic

status, attitudes, background experiences); (c) characteristics of program implementation (the activities of the project); (d) program outcomes (measures of the extent to which the goals have been achieved, unanticipated outcomes); and (e) program costs (the cost-effectiveness of the project).

Steps in Conducting Evaluation Research

There are a number of steps which can be taken in conducting evaluation research. These are:

Defining the Evaluation Problem:

- Identify overall goals of the project
- Identify specific objectives of the project
- Identify activities which are expected to accomplish the specific objectives

Designing the Evaluation:

- Decide on types of evaluation and measures to be used
- Create measures of the activities which relate to the specific objectives
- Identify types of individuals or groups to form the subjects of the evaluation
- Select samples, if they will be used

Collecting the Information:

- Administer questionnaire or survey instruments, if used
- Observe the interaction of the faculty in workshops or discussion groups

Recording the Information:

- Enter quantitative data into database or spreadsheet
- Codify and summarize qualitative data by identifying themes and generalizations apparent in the content of the observations, interviews, case studies, or journals.

Analyzing the Information:

- Use statistical procedures for quantitative data
- Prepare reports based on qualitative data

Reporting the Information

An Abbreviated Example

For more extensive treatment of what is involved in conducting evaluation research of a curriculum transformation project, see the publication *Evaluation: Measuring the Success of Curriculum Transformation* produced by the National Center. In this section, we walk

through some of the kinds of decisions that should be made in a design stage, using an abbreviated example employing only several goals and measures. In this example, the project is a semester-long workshop of social science faculty designed to facilitate the study of the scholarship on women in the social science disciplines, and to aid in the change of the introductory courses taught by the participants, followed by syllabi revision carried out in the semester after the workshop.

Step 1. Identify Overall Goals of the Project

The steering committee of the project decides that one of the overall goals of the project is to increase the knowledge and understanding students have of the experiences of and conditions affecting women.

Step 2. Identify Specific Objectives of the Project

The steering committee of the project decides that the specific objectives of the project are to:

> Increase faculty knowledge of the diversity of women, particularly that occasioned by social class location and racial/ethnic membership
>
> Increase faculty knowledge of the experiences of women, and the interpretations women may place upon those experiences
>
> Increase faculty understanding of the social construction of gender, the role of oppression in

> the evolution of gender inequality, the creation and maintenance of and change in systems of dominance, the forms of resistance used by subordinated groups, and the complexities introduced by the intersections of class, race/ethnicity, and gender.

The focus is placed on faculty, since the steering committee makes the judgment that change in faculty knowledge, attitudes and behaviors will result in change in student knowledge and skills, and the budget available for research prohibits researching both students and faculty.

Step 3. Identify the Activities Expected to Accomplish the Objectives

Activities pertinent to the objectives listed above include the opening presentation by outside consultant/lecturers, reading assignments for the workshops, and revision of syllabi required in the semester following the workshop.

Step 4. Select the Evaluation Researcher.

The committee carefully considers what kind of evaluation researcher to hire for the research. Due to the limited budget, an internal (to the campus) researcher is recruited. The administration offers one course of released time to the evaluator so that she can work on the project.

Step 5. Decide on Types of Evaluation and Measures to Be Used.

The evaluation researcher in consultation with the steering committee decides to use a combination of qualitative and quantitative measures. The qualitative measures will come from analysis of faculty journals created throughout the semester, periodic interviews with the workshop leaders about their progress, and comparison of syllabi before and after the project. Quantitative measures will be contained in questionnaires administered at the beginning and end of the project, and measures developed from the before- and after-syllabi.

Due to a limited budget available for the evaluation research, it is decided not to include a control group of faculty who have not participated in the project. This decision is recognized as one which will limit the scientific validity of the research for some audiences.

Step 6. Create Measures of the Activities Which Relate to the Specific Objectives.

Example: Journals will be coded using stage theory as to what type of perception of women is held by faculty participants. Stage level before the project will be compared to stage level after the project. Stage level is reconceptualized as suggested by Ries (1994, p. 38) to indicate courses which are "Adding," "Shifting," or "Transforming." Questionnaires will include items designed to measure the depth and breadth of understanding of basic concepts, such as the social construction of gender. Before- and after- syllabi will

be coded for the presence of readings about women, and topics pertinent to women. Faculty participants will be interviewed after they change their courses in order to find out how they perceive the changes they have introduced, and the ways in which their courses have been altered.

Step 7. Identify Types of Individuals or Groups to Form the Subjects of the Evaluation.

The decision is made that all project participants will be the objects of the research.

Step 8. Identify Samples.

Not relevant due to the decision made in Step 7.

Step 9. Administer Questionnaires and Make Observations.

At the beginning of the project, the evaluator distributes questionnaires and solicits before-syllabi. The project director or workshop facilitator assigns journal writing exercises. At the end of the project, the evaluator distributes questionnaires. The project director collects copies of the journals kept during the project. One semester later, the evaluator collects after-syllabi, and then conducts face-to-face interviews with each faculty participant.

Step 10. Record the Information.

Questionnaire data are coded and entered into a computer database. The evaluator codes the journals using stage theory as the basis. Syllabi are coded, and the codes are entered into a database. The content of the interviews is transcribed and analyzed using content analysis.

Step 11. Analyze the Information.

With the help of student assistants, the evaluator produces statistical summaries of the quantitative data, and verbal summaries of the qualitative data.

Step 12. Report the Information.

The evaluator writes a draft of the report, circulates it to the project directors and participants, then prepares the final report.

In actuality, evaluation efforts often result in a less full accounting of what happened in the project than the design originally envisioned. Sometimes designs are too ambitious for the available personnel resources, or for the time that personnel are allocated to the project. Compromises in activities may need to be made. There may be a degree of imperfection in the instruments or methods, so that some questions or procedures turn out to be less adequate than hoped. Nevertheless, careful thought and planning of the evaluation effort usually produces at least a certain amount of useful and enlightening information. Sometimes the information turns out to be very useful in informing the project directors as to the progress of the project, highlighting particularly effective components, or providing justification for continued support.

CHAPTER 7

INSTITUTIONALIZING THE PROJECT RESULTS

Most projects, no matter how extensive and ambitious, are finite and eventually end. The exceptions, to date, are the New Jersey State project, ongoing since 1986, and the project at the University of Maryland, College Park, ongoing since 1989. Usually, however, project directors lose their released time, cease to be project directors, even move to other institutions. Faculty also lose released time or stipends as well as the various organizing structures that helped motivate and focus their work. How to sustain, extend, and institutionalize curriculum change after a project formally concludes is, therefore, a major concern, and one of the most challenging as well as most important aspects of planning a project. All projects agree that follow-up is extremely important. Too often in the past, projects have concluded with no or little planning for the future. The result is that achievements are dissipated, and opportunities for more lasting impact on the institution may be overlooked or lost. Indeed there is concern among some leaders in the curriculum transformation movement that projects are not having the long range impact they should have. Yet, given the present and likely future economic climate of higher education in the United States, it is more important than ever that

projects be "cost-efficient" by creating a firm basis for continued curriculum transformation work.

Planning ways of institutionalizing the work of curriculum transformation should therefore be an integral part of the initial planning for the project. Expectations, commitments and responsibilities for continuing the work after formal cessation can be built in from the beginning. As with every aspect of curriculum transformation, strategies for institutionalization will very according to local conditions, but they should address ways of continuing faculty involvement in curriculum change, institutional structures through which change can be made permanent, and ways of seeking funding for future work.

Faculty

The project faculty remain the heart of any curriculum project, and their commitment to sustaining and extending the project's work is crucial. They need to be encouraged to continue curriculum transformation work, and ways need to be found to extend the work to non-project faculty. The following are suggestions for encouraging and supporting project faculty and for extending the work to other faculty.

Encouraging and Supporting Project Faculty

- Have project faculty make written or oral reports to groups of faculty or their departments as a whole in order to publicize the work of the project and thus give it departmental credence and sanction and encourage/enable others to become familiar

with it. Some projects require such presentations by project faculty.

- Have project faculty become resource people for other faculty. Establish mentoring programs.

- Where project faculty have transformed sections of multi-sectioned courses, such as introductory courses in the disciplines, encourage mentoring or one-on-one work with other faculty teaching the course. Have them give model lectures or presentations in other sections. Some projects have encouraged team teaching. Guidelines for multi-sectioned courses can be re-written to assure that issues of gender, race, ethnicity, class and sexuality are included in the syllabi.

- Ensure that a revised course will be regularly taught by having it recognized as a standard part of the faculty member's teaching load.

- Encourage project faculty to become members of key committees, including departmental, divisional, and university-wide curriculum, promotion, and tenure committees.

- Encourage faculty to give presentations (individual papers, sessions) on their work at scholarly conferences and conferences on curriculum transformation.

Extending the Work to Other Faculty

- Create a materials area or resource center within a department where revised syllabi, bibliographies, readings used in the project, critiques of textbooks, sample student assignments, videos, etc. can be

made available to other faculty. Give special packets of material from the project to non-project faculty.

- Hold informal meetings—brown bag lunches, reading and discussion groups—on the theory of curriculum transformation and/or issues in feminist and multicultural scholarship.

- Seek continued financial support for individual or small group faculty projects, for example through faculty development grants.

- Hold training sessions of a day or more for other faculty and/or faculty on other campuses who may want to start curriculum transformation work.

- Create a departmental faculty committee on curriculum transformation to insure ongoing change by encouraging further faculty involvement.

- Include a presentation on curriculum transformation in orientation for all new faculty. Include information about curriculum transformation activity in the Faculty Handbook.

Institutional

Comprehensive and lasting curriculum change is most likely to be achieved if procedures facilitating change are built into the structure of the institution as a whole. In addition to a critical mass of faculty and administrators who are knowledgeable and supportive, the following are especially important in institutionalizing curriculum transformation:

- Recruiting, hiring and retaining women and minority faculty.

- Creating a full-time position in curriculum transformation with adequate support staff, or assigning responsibilities for ongoing curriculum transformation work to one or more faculty who are given adequate assigned time. SUNY Plattsburgh and University of Maryland at College Park have hired specialists in curriculum transformation, and other institutions can be encouraged to follow their example.

- Including gender and diversity requirements in the core curriculum, the general education, distribution or graduation requirements.

- Some curriculum projects have the revision of required core or general education courses as their immediate objective; other projects might decide to define such revisions as their long-range goal, beyond the immediate and limited objectives of the project itself. This may be especially desirable at two year colleges, since the current trend is for greater articulation between two and four year schools, with a student able to transfer an entire set of core or general education courses. Unless such courses are transformed at the two year college level, large numbers of students (and the number transferring to four year institutions is increasing) will not be exposed to the new scholarship. Beyond this, the national trend is towards reforming core curricula; these should therefore be seen as a key area for curriculum transformation in most if not all institutions.

Other procedures for encouraging and establishing curriculum transformation through institutional structures include:

- Rewriting the institution's mission statement so that attention to issues of gender, race, class, and other forms of diversity becomes part of the official institutional commitment and purpose.
- Expanding the institution's affirmative action statement to include recognition of the need for an inclusive curriculum. This has been done at Old Dominion University.
- Including expectations regarding curriculum transformation work in faculty job descriptions.
- Creating department guidelines for all existing courses for appropriate inclusion of race, gender, and class.
- Establishing guidelines for curriculum committees at all levels—departmental, college, and university—that take into account the inclusion of relevant issues of race, class and gender in the syllabi of all new courses submitted for approval.
- Using internal department and program reviews, and reviews by outside accrediting agencies, as ways to draw attention to and include issues of diversity.
- Getting a proportion of faculty development and faculty research funds permanently allocated for curriculum transformation work.
- Building recognition of curriculum transformation work into merit awards, promotion and tenure decisions and other reward structures.

- Using existing departmental and college or university-wide lecture series, faculty or professional development days, Black History Month, Women's History Month, and similar established structures and events to offer speakers and programs on curriculum transformation.

- Working with librarians: the library can produce and circulate lists of new books relevant to curriculum transformation; a resource area can be established with materials from the project, including printed, audio and video materials, available to all campus faculty and to students.

- Using established publications, including college or university-wide faculty newsletters and student newspapers, to provide regular updates on faculty and campus activities. Some projects also create their own newsletters both during and after the project.

- Creating a world wide web page about the project and curriculum transformation work on the campus, which can be accessed by anyone seeking information about the institution.

Students

- If students were involved in the project, have them give written or oral reports to department faculty, student majors, and student groups.

- Encourage existing student organizations and groups, and students in women's studies and ethnic studies programs to learn about and help publicize curriculum transformation work.

- Encourage regular reporting in the student newspaper of curriculum transformation activities.
- Include a presentation about curriculum transformation in student orientation sessions.
- Revise student course evaluation forms to include one or more questions about inclusion in the course of appropriate attention to issues of class, gender, race, and sexuality.
- Create internships with academic credit for students to work with faculty on curriculum transformation activities.
- For graduate students who will be teaching assistants, create workshop and demonstration sessions on curriculum transformation and teaching unbiased courses. UCLA includes in its guide for teaching assistants a statement of university policy on teaching unbiased courses.

Seeking Future Funding

- Project directors and others interested in pursuing curriculum transformation beyond the conclusion of a project are encouraged to consult the National Center's, *Funding: Obtaining Money for Curriculum Transformation Projects and Activities* for possible funding sources.
- In addition, funding can be sought through alumnae and through an institution's endowment office. An advisory board of alumnae can be created to help seek future funding; curriculum transformation

work can be identified as a focus for future endowment campaigns.

- Funding sources can be sought in the community from businesses and corporations. The National Council for Research on Women recently advised that planning around issues of diversity has been a major trend in corporate management. Eastern Montana College persuaded a group of local business women to fund a visiting scholar who taught women's studies courses and made presentations to the community.

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Appendix I: Curriculum Transformation: The Process of Faculty Change (Coulter)

Faculty questions	Workshop responses	Anticipated results
1. What is the problem? What is curriculum transformation?	Provide an explanation of curriculum transformation work, review the history of women's education and the development of Women's Studies, and give examples of how the disciplines in higher education have traditionally omitted or marginalized women.	Faculty understand what curriculum transformation is, and recognize it as a necessary stage in the evolution of curriculum; they do not feel defensive, but want to begin the process of evaluating their course(s) and learning new material about women.
2. How should I begin?	Provide basic information about women in society—the current reality and how it evolved broadly considered. Read Andersen, *Thinking About Women*, and similar material, including race, class, ethnic diversity.	Faculty gain new information and an interdisciplinary synthesis that establish a starting point of common knowledge and vocabulary for the discussion of women.
3. How should I think about and study women?	Provide analysis of how traditional perspectives have thought about and studied women (discipline analyses). Present a diversity of feminist perspectives offering alternative ways of studying women.	Faculty achieve an increased epistemological sophistication about their own courses, about their own disciplines, about the construction of knowledge.
4. What is the transformed portrait of women that the new scholarship offers?	Provide a synthesis across the disciplines of the new studies on women, showing how one reinforces the other, e.g. history and literature, economics and political science.	Faculty come to see women in a radically new and more comprehensive way across disciplines.
5. What is my discipline providing as new information, issues, and paradigms?	Provide discipline specific reviews of scholarship and address the needs of individual participants.	Faculty achieve an overview of the new scholarship on women in their discipline and recognize the need to read and think in depth over time; some may feel overwhelmed by the depth and extent of revision implied.

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National Center for Curriculum Transformation Resources on Women

6. Where should I begin?	Provide resources selected according to specific interests and workshops for discussion with appropriate colleagues.	Faculty experience a sense of having learned some things with much left to do, but they are ready to consider initial course revision.
7. How can I use this information in my current syllabus?	Review and study sample syllabi, offering a range of integration strategies from conservative to innovative.	Faculty select one or two ways to incorporate new material into their existing course but feel some anxiety over how it will work, whether it will fit, whether other issues will be short changed, etc.
8. Are there different ways of using information by and about women?	Provide several versions of stage theory from McIntosh, 1983; Schuster and Van Dyne, 1985; Tetreault, 1985; Banks 1993.	Faculty achieve awareness that integration requires not just the addition of women but also concomitant change in the knowledge paradigm; that it is a long-term process to achieve real change.
9. If the content of my course has excluded or marginalized women, has my method of teaching also taken women less seriously?	Read and discuss feminist pedagogy; tapes and videos are especially useful for pedagogy.	Faculty achieve a greater awareness of classroom dynamics as they reflect gender attitudes; a desire to evaluate their own behavior and eliminate those methods and attitudes that denigrate women, directly or indirectly.
10. What if it doesn't work? What if I don't know enough to speak with authority about this new material? What if my students resent new material and approaches? How do I handle classroom conflicts or challenges on gender issues?	Provide a presentation by and discussion with faculty who will share their personal experience in teaching integrated courses.	Faculty acquire strategies for coping with anticipated problems and for presenting material in a way that avoids problems but welcomes discussion.
11. Let me tell you about it!	Have participants report on teaching their revised courses—what worked, what didn't, their dissatisfactions, their triumphs.	Faculty experience a sense of success but also recognize that they are part of a shared, on-going enterprise that will lead to further revision and development.

Compiled by: Sara Coulter, Coordinator of Curriculum Transformation, Institute for Teaching and Research on Women, Towson, Maryland 21252.

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Appendix II: Versions of Feminist Phase/Stage Theory

A. Interactive Phases of Curricular and Personal Re-Vision (McIntosh)

In an essay in 1983, Peggy McIntosh offered a typology of "Interactive Phases of Curricular and Personal Re-Vision" to describe phases which traditionally trained faculty are likely to move through as they try to include women, as a group omitted from the established curriculum, in their courses. She used the study and teaching of history as an example:

Phase I: Womanless History
Phase II: Women in History, on its terms: for example, including a few "exceptional" women
Phase III: Women as a Problem, Anomaly, or Absence in History, with "History" understood both as The Past and as History's own Telling of The Past.
Phase IV: Women's Lives As History
Phase V: History Redefined or Reconstructed to Include Us All (1983:3)

In an essay in 1990, McIntosh elaborated upon this typology with regard to race, in, for example, a U.S. History course:

Phase I: All-White History
Phase II: Exceptional Minority Individuals in U.S. History
Phase III: Minority Issues, or Minority Groups as Problems, Anomalies, Absences, or Victims in U.S. History
Phase IV: The Lives and Cultures of People of Color Everywhere As History
Phase V: History Redefined and Reconstructed to Include Us All

McIntosh sees the most important and interesting conceptual shift occurring between Phases III and IV: "Phase IV teaching and inquiry dares put what was neglected or marginal at the center, to see what new insight or theory can be developed from hitherto excluded or overlooked sources whose absence helped to determine the shape of each [academic] field.... [I]t goes far beyond the exceptional achievements allowed in Phase II and the discussion of 'issues' allowed in Phase III" (1990:4)

She offers an example of phase theory as applied to the study and teaching about the history of Native Americans:

Phase I: "A Phase One all-white course in U.S. History usually begins by describing the voyages of Europeans, and this entry point does not bring any challenges from students."

Phase II: "A Phase Two course will encourage students of color to emulate the most 'ambitious' of their forebears, and overcome obstacles to advancement in American society. In the case of Native Americans, there may be an emphasis on those who are seen to have interacted well with the 'settlers.'"

Phase III: "Phase Three courses focus on, or at least give serious attention to, racism and other systemic oppressions. In the case of Native peoples, the late 19th century U.S. government policy of genocide is recognized."

Phase IV: "Phase Four is entirely different, imaginatively honoring a variety of cultures on their own terms, trying to see them through the testimony or actions of their people. For example, teaching in this mode goes far beyond Indian 'issues' to

Indian cultures; it suggests the wholeness and intricacy of Native cosmologies, and the Indians' particular relation to the land and consonance with the spirit of the land, before the Anglo-European ethos of land ownership was imposed. Phase Four recognizes Anglo-European ideas, actions, and standards as ethno-specific."

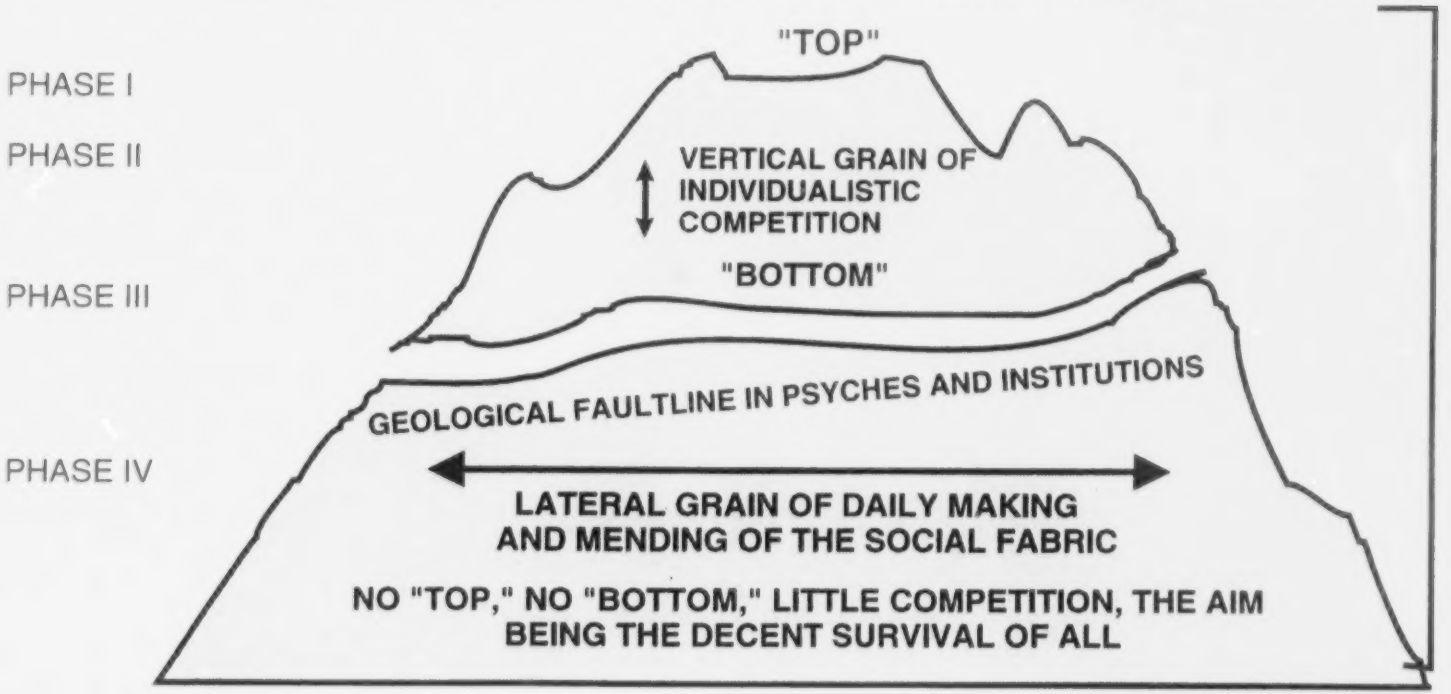
Phase V: "Phase Five will require a vocabulary for perceiving, feeling, and analyzing what is both plural and coherent, and will put us in a new relation to ourselves and the world." (1990:5)

McIntosh described her analysis of Interactive Phases Of Curricular Re-Vision as "placed in context of, and diagrammatically overlaid upon, my theoretical model of double structures within both psyche and society in the industrialized West: overvalued, overdeveloped, 'vertical' competitive functions at odds with undervalued, underrecognized, 'lateral' collaborative functions. The shape of the whole is that of a faulted pyramid or mountain range with a vertical 'grain' in the higher rocks and a horizontal 'grain' in the rock of the substructure." (1990:5-6)

See the accompanying diagram of double structures within both the psyche and society which relate to McIntosh's "Interactive Phases of Curricular and Personal Re-Vision."

Excerpted with permission from Peggy McIntosh, "Interactive Phases of Curricular Re-Vision: A Feminist Perspective" (Working Paper no. 124, Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, 1983), and McIntosh, "Interactive Phases of Curricular and Personal Re-Vision with Regard to Race" (Working Paper no. 219, Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, 1990).

Broken Pyramid Representing the Faulted Structure of Psyche and Society


"TOP"
PHASE I
PHASE II
VERTICAL GRAIN OF INDIVIDUALISTIC COMPETITION
"BOTTOM"
PHASE III
GEOLOGICAL FAULTLINE IN PSYCHES AND INSTITUTIONS
PHASE IV
LATERAL GRAIN OF DAILY MAKING AND MENDING OF THE SOCIAL FABRIC
NO "TOP," NO "BOTTOM," LITTLE COMPETITION, THE AIM BEING THE DECENT SURVIVAL OF ALL
PHASE V

PEGGY McINTOSH, 1983

Some examples of curricular implications: **Phase I** – only elite functions and people are recognized and celebrated; **Phase II** – lives or works of individual women or minority men are recognized and celebrated; **Phase III** – the previously devalued are seen as problems, anomalies, victims, and their work is seen as that of losers; **Phase IV** – recognition and validation of those lateral functions of psyche and society which make survival and civilization possible; **Phase V** (100 years in the making) – inclusive seeing of cultures, systems, individuals; reconstructed knowledge; reconstructed societies.

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B. Stages of Change in the Curriculum and the Classroom (Schuster and Van Dyne)

Stages	Questions	Incentives	Means	Outcomes	Classroom practice
1. Invisibility	Who are the truly great thinkers/actors in history?	Maintaining standards of excellence	Back to basics	Pre-1960s, exclusionary core curriculum; fixed products, universal values	Students as passive vessels
2. Search for missing women, absent "minorities"	Who are the great women? Where is the female Shakespeare?	Affirmative action/ compensatory	Add data within existing paradigms	"Exceptional" women added to the curriculum; role models sought for women and "minority" students	Notice the presence of female and minority students
3. Minorities understood as oppressed; women as subordinate in male-dominated society	Why has history of "minorities" been ignored? distorted? Why is women's work considered marginal?	Anger/social justice	Protest existing paradigms, but within perspective of dominant group	Images of women courses, African-American studies begins	Student engages more in debate, may resist identification with gender or ethnic group
4. Women studied on own terms, oppressed cultures studied from insider's perspective	What was/is women's experience? What are differences among women? (attention to race, class, cultural differences, different meanings of gender)	Intellectual	Outside existing paradigms; develop competing paradigms	Links among ethnic studies, cross-cultural studies & women's studies; interdisciplinary courses	Student values own experience, gathers data from more familiar sources
5. New scholarship challenges the disciplines	Question adequacy of current definitions of historical periods, norms for behavior. How must questions change to account for gender, ethnicity and class in context? Shift from stable subject to shifting subject positions	Epistemology	Testing the paradigms: gender, race, class and sexuality as categories of analysis	Beginnings of transformation, theory courses	Teacher as coach, student as collaborator
6. Visibility; transformed curriculum	How are gender, race, class, sexuality, imbricated? How can we account more fully for diversity of human experience?	Inclusive vision founded on attention to differences and diversity rather than sameness and generalization	Transform the paradigms	Reconceptualized, inclusive core, dynamic process, transformed introductory courses	Empowered student, knowledge defined as much by skills, abilities, as by content

From Marilyn R. Schuster and Susan Van Dyne, 1996 updated version of 1985 chart. Reprinted by permission.

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C. An Evaluation Model of Feminist Phase Theory (Tetreault)

	Anthropology	History	Literature	Psychology
1. *Male Scholarship* The absence of women is not noted. There is no consciousness that the male experience is a "particular knowledge" selected from a wider universe of possible knowledge and experience. It is valued, emphasized, and viewed as the knowledge most worth having.				
2. *Compensatory Scholarship* The absence of women is noted. There is a search for missing women according to a male norm of greatness, excellence, or humanness. Women are considered as exceptional, deviant, or "other." Women are added into the traditional structure of the discipline but the structure and methodology are not challenged.	How can we retrieve and reinterpret all shreds of information concerning women?	Who are the notable women missing from history and what did they contribute in areas of movements traditionally dominated by men—for example, during major wars or during reform movements like abolitionism or the labor movement? What did they contribute in areas that are an extension of women's traditional roles, for example, caring for the poor and the sick? How have major economic and political changes like industrialization or	Who are the missing female authors whose subject matter and use of language and form meet the male norm of "masterpiece?" What primary biographical facts and interpretations are missing about major female authors?	How have sex differences in behavior evolved during the long, slow process of evolution? How do sex differences explain female "inferiority" and women's subordinate position in society? What is wrong with women or women's development that they do not fit the theories of achievement motivation, the theories of psychosexual, cognitive, social, and moral development? Can women's "contradictions" to psychological theory be explained

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	Anthropology	History	Literature	Psychology
		extension of the franchise affected women in the public sphere?		by differences in female anatomy? By sex differences in personality formation in early childhood?
3. *Bifocal Scholarship* Human experience is conceptualized primarily in dualist categories: male and female; private and public; agency and communion. Emphasis is on a "complementary but equal" conceptualization of men's and women's spheres and personal qualities. There is a focus on women's oppression and misogyny. Women's efforts to overcome that oppression are presented. Efforts to include women lead to the insight that the traditional content, structure, and methodology of the disciplines are more appropriate to the male experience.	Has there always been universal sexual asymmetry or the subordination of women? What universals can we identify to explain sexual asymmetry? How does the division between the public and domestic spheres explain women's lives? What are the biological, social, and psychological bases for the association of women with nature and the association of men with culture? How have women formed family-based "cultures of resistance" in the colonial world and in internal colonial situations in the United States? Is "woman" a social category that has been constructed historically and socially and that has subordination at its core?	How does the division between the public and the private sphere explain women's lives? Who oppressed women and how were they oppressed? How did notable and ordinary women respond to their oppression, particularly through women's rights organizations? What did women as a group contribute to areas or movements traditionally dominated by men; for example, major wars, abolitionism, or the labor movement?	Who are the missing minor female authors whose books are unobtainable, whose lives have never been written, and whose works have been studied casually, if at all? How is literature a record of the collective consciousness of patriarchy? What myths and stereotypes about women are present in male literature? How can we critique the meritocratic pretensions of traditional literary history? How can we pair opposite-sex twins in literature as a way of understanding the differences between women's and men's experiences? How is literature one of the expressive modes of a female subculture that developed with the distinction of separate spheres for women and men?	How does the nature and significance of women's achievement motivation, and psychosexual, cognitive, social, and moral development differ from men's? How do women's conceptions of self and morality differ from men's? Why are the personality traits that have traditionally been ascribed to women perceived as deficient? What major theoretical system of female development—sociobiology, psychoanalytic theory, social learning theory, or cognitive development—will help us to understand female psychological development? Do we need a new conceptualization of human personality beyond the traditional definitions of masculinity and femininity, a new ideal called androgyny?

4. *Feminist Scholarship* Scholarly inquiry pursues new questions, new categories, and new notions of significance which illuminate women's traditions, history, culture, values, visions, and perspectives. A pluralistic conception of women emerges which acknowledges diversity and recognizes that other variables besides gender shape women's lives; for example, race, ethnicity, and social class. Women's experience is allowed to speak for itself. Feminist criticism is rooted in the personal and the specific; it builds from that to the general. The public and the private are seen as a continuum in women's experiences. Women's experience is analyzed within social, cultural, historical, political, and economic contexts. Efforts are made to reconceptualize knowledge to encompass the female experience. The conceptualization of knowledge is not characterized by disciplinary thinking but	What female forms of knowledge, rituals, and expressive genres have developed in "women's culture?" How is the value of female labor situationally defined and affected by the ideological system of the society? How do historical explanations of the position of women illuminate cross-cultural comparisons of women? How does an analysis of the cultural and historical dynamics of racism, classism, and sexism illuminate cross-cultural comparisons of women's status? Do issues of ethnicity and class divide women as much as or more than sex unites them? How can life histories and autobiographies as direct statements of women's lives shed light on societies' perceptions of women and women's perceptions of themselves?	What were the majority of women doing at a particular time in history? What was the significance of these activities? What new categories need to be added to the study of history, for instance, housework, childbearing, and childrearing? What kind of productive work, paid and unpaid, did women do and under what conditions? How did the variables of race, ethnicity, social class, marital status, and sexual orientation affect women's experiences? How have women of different races and classes interacted throughout history? How did women develop a collective feminist consciousness of their distinct role in the private and public spheres? Who were outstanding women who advocated a feminist transformation of the home, who contributed to women's greater self-determination through the right to control their bodies, to increase their political rights, and to improve their economic status? What are appropriate	What does women's sphere—for example, domesticity and family, education, marriage, sexuality and love—reveal about our culture? How can we contrast the fictional images of women in literature with the complexity and variety of the roles of individual women in real life as workers, housewives, revolutionaries, mothers, lovers, etc.? How do the particulars of race, ethnicity, social class, marital status, and sexual orientation, as revealed in literature, challenge the thematic homogeneity of women's experiences? How does literature portray what binds women together and what separates them because of race, ethnicity, social class, marital status, and sexual orientation? How does the social and historical context of a work of literature shed light on it? How do individual women's experiences inform certain persistent and personal themes about women in literature? How can we	How do social context, past experiences, thoughts and anxieties about the future, anticipations about others' reactions, ideas and prejudices, and bodily state interact to influence a woman's psychological experience? How do a female's cognitive level and peer interactions, particularly during adolescence, affect psychological experience? How do race, ethnicity, social class, marital status, and sexual orientation affect women's experiences? How do individual women's experiences speak for themselves, define the human experience?

	Anthropology	History	Literature	Psychology
becomes multidisciplinary. Disciplinary standards of excellence are questioned. Excellence begins to be defined as more than superior models of artistic creation judged by the criteria of formal genre. Works are evaluated according to their insight into any aspect of human experience rather than according to how they measure up to a predetermined canon derived from the experience of a privileged few.		ways of organizing or periodizing women's history? For example, how will examining women's experiences at each stage of life help us to understand women's experiences on their own terms?	place women writers in a historical as well as a theoretical framework in order to describe the continuity and coherence of women's writing and provide the hypotheses against which individual writers can be assessed? How do such categories as education, religion, birthplace, marriage, sexual orientation, means of support, race, ethnicity, and social class illuminate the lives and work of female authors?	
5. *Multifocal, Relational Scholarship* A multifocal, gender-balanced perspective is sought which serves to fuse women's and men's experiences into a holistic view of human experience. At this stage, scholars are conscious of particularity, while at the same time identifying common denominators of experience. They begin to define what binds together and what	How is sexual asymmetry linked to economic systems, kinship, family organization, cosmologies, marriage, religious ideology, political systems, and the life course of women and men? How do class and race intersect with gender? What constitutes a culture's gender system and how do women's and men's subjective experiences intersect with that system? How can we explore the interplay	Are the private, as well as the public, aspects of history presented as a continuum in women's and men's experiences? How is gender asymmetry linked to economic systems, family organization, marriage, ritual, and political systems? How can we compare women and men in all aspects of their lives to reveal gender as a crucial historical determinant? How did the variables of race,	How can we validate the full range of human expression by selecting literature according to its insight into any aspect of human experience rather than according to how it measures up to a predetermined canon? Is the private as well as the public sphere presented as a continuum in women's and men's experiences? How can we pair opposite sex twins in literature as a way of understanding how female and male	How can we conceptualize the development of the related but nondependent sex and gender systems? How can psychology build upon the other disciplines to get a clear vision of the social structure and culture in a society as individuals encounter them in daily living? How are sex and gender defined by the historical and cultural context as well as the biology of sexual differentiation? How

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separates the various segments of humanity. Scholars have a deepened understanding of how the private as well as the public form a continuum in individual experience. They search for the nodal points where comparative treatment of men's and women's experiences is possible. Disciplinary standards of excellence continue to be questioned, as described in Stage 4. Efforts are made to reconceptualize knowledge to reflect a holistic view of human experience. The conceptualization of knowledge is not characterized by disciplinary thinking but becomes multidisciplinary.	of situation, context, and meaning towards a more sophisticated approach to the study of cultural meaning and experience in studies of gender? When is gender a socially meaningful criterion and when is it not? Is gender always a difference that makes a difference? What is public and what is domestic in societies where the domestic domain "expands" into the public domain? How might we conceptualize what a sexually egalitarian society might in fact be?	ethnicity, social class, marital status, and sexual orientation affect women's and men's experiences in history? How can we expand our conceptualization of historical time to a pluralistic one which conceives of three levels of history: structures, trends, and events. How can we unify approaches and types of knowledge of all the social sciences and history as a means of investigating specific problems in relational history?	characters experience "maleness" and "femaleness" as a continuum of "humanness?" How do the variables of race, ethnicity, social class, marital status, and sexual orientation affect the experience of female and male literary characters? How can we rethink the concept of periodicity to accentuate the continuity of life and to contain the multitude of previously ignored literary works, for example, instead of Puritanism, the contexts for and consequences of sexuality?	do the variables of race, ethnicity, social class, and sexual orientation affect the human experience? How can we conceptualize masculinity and femininity as categories that imply each other and which for some purposes may be treated as defining dimensions?

From Mary Kay Thompson Tetreault, "Feminist Phase Theory. An Experience-Derived Evaluation Model," *Journal of Higher Education*, 56:4 (July/August 1985), pp. 368-372. Reprinted by permission.

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Appendix III: Banks Approaches for the Integration of Ethnic Content

Description	Examples	Strengths	Problems
Contributions Approach: Heroes, cultural components, holidays, and other discrete elements related to ethnic groups are added to the curriculum on special days, occasions, and celebrations	Famous Mexican-Americans are studied only during the week of Cinco de Mayo (May 5). Black Americans are studied during Black History Month in February but rarely during the rest of the year. Ethnic foods are studied in the first grade with little attention devoted to the cultures in which the foods are embedded.	Provides a quick and relatively easy way to put ethnic content into the curriculum. Gives ethnic heroes visibility in the curriculum alongside mainstream heroes. Is a popular approach among teachers and educators.	Results in a superficial understanding of ethnic cultures. Focuses on the life-styles and artifacts of ethnic groups and reinforces stereotypes and mis-conceptions. Mainstream criteria are used to select heroes and cultural elements for inclusion in the curriculum.
Additive Approach: This approach consists of the addition of content, concepts, themes, and perspectives to the curriculum without changing its structure.	Adding the book *The Color Purple* to a literature unit without reconceptual-izing the unit or giving the students the background knowledge to understand the book. Adding a unit on the Japanese-American internment to a U.S. history course without treating the Japanese in any other unit. Leaving the core curriculum intact but adding an ethnic studies course, as an elective, that focuses on a specific ethnic group.	Makes it possible to add ethnic content to the curriculum without changing its structure, which requires substantial curriculum changes and staff development. Can be implemented within the existing curriculum structure.	Reinforces the idea that ethnic history and culture are not integral parts of U.S. mainstream culture. Students' view ethnic groups from Anglocentric and Eurocentric perspectives. Fails to help students understand how the dominant culture and ethnic cultures are interconnected and interrelated.

Transformation Approach: The basic goals, structure, and nature of the curriculum are changed to enable students to view concepts, events, issues, problems, and themes from the perspectives of diverse cultural, ethnic, and racial groups.	A unit on the American Revolution describes the meaning of the revolution to Anglo revolutionaries, Anglo loyalists, Afro-Americans, Indians, and the British. A unit on 20th-century U.S. literature includes works by William Faulkner, Joyce Carol Oates, Langston Hughes, N. Scott Momaday, Carlos Bulosan, Saul Bellow, Maxine Hong Kingston, Rudolfo A. Anaya, and Piri Thomas.	Enables students to understand the complex ways in which diverse racial and cultural groups participated in the formation of U.S. society and culture. Helps reduce racial and ethnic encapsulation. Enables diverse ethnic, racial, and religious groups to see their cultures, ethos, and perspectives in the school curriculum. Gives students a balanced view of the nature and development of U.S. culture and society. Helps to empower victimized racial, ethnic, and cultural groups.	The implementation of this approach requires substantial curriculum revision, in-service training, and the identification and development of materials written from the perspectives of various racial and cultural groups. Staff development for the institutionalization of this approach must be continual and ongoing.
Decision Making and Social Action Approach: In this approach, students identify important social problems and issues, gather pertinent data, clarify their values on the issue, make decisions, and take reflective actions to help resolve the issue or problem.	A class studies prejudice and discrimination in their school and decides to take actions to improve race relations in the school. A class studies the treatment of ethnic groups in a local newspaper and writes a letter to the newspaper publisher suggesting ways that the treatment of ethnic minority groups in the newspaper should be improved.	Enables students to improve their thinking, value analysis, decision-making, and social-action skills. Enables students to improve their data-gathering skills. Helps students develop a sense of political efficacy. Helps students improve their skills to work in groups.	Requires a considerable amount of curriculum planning and materials identification. May be longer in duration than more traditional teaching units. May focus on problems and issues considered controversial by some members of the school staff and citizens of the community. Students may be able to take few meaningful actions that contribute to the resolution of the social issue or problem.

From James A. Banks, "Integrating the Curriculum with Ethnic Content: Approaches and Guidelines," in James A. Banks and Cherry A. McGee Banks, eds. *Multicultural Education. Issues and Perspectives*, 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1993, pp. 201-202. Reprinted with the permission of James A Banks. All rights reserved.

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About the Author

Elaine Hedges is Emerita Professor of English and former Coordinator of Women's Studies at Towson State University. She is the author or editor of numerous books and articles, including the "Afterword" to The Feminist Press edition of Charlotte Perkins Gilman's *The Yellow Wallpaper* (1973); *In Her Own Image: Women Working in the Arts* (1980); *Land and Imagination: The American Rural Dream* (1980); *Ripening: Selected Writings of Meridel LeSueur* (1982); and *Hearts and Hands. The Influence of Women and Quilts on American Society* (1987, reissued 1996). She is also an editor of *The Heath Anthology of American Literature* (1990, 1994, 1997). In the 1980's, she co-directed a three year curriculum transformation project at Towson State University and a two year project with community colleges in the Baltimore-Washington area. She is currently a co-director of the National Center for Curriculum Transformation Resources on Women.

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The following publications consist of directories, manuals, and essays covering the primary information needed by educators to transform the curriculum to incorporate the scholarship on women. The publications have been designed to be brief, user friendly, and cross referenced to each other. They can be purchased as a set or as individual titles. Tables of contents and sample passages are available on the National Center Web page: http://www.towson.edu/ncctrw/.

➢ ***Directory of Curriculum Transformation Projects and Activities in the U.S.***

The *Directory* provides brief descriptions of over 200 curriculum transformation projects or activities from 1976 to the present. It is intended to help educators review the amount and kinds of work that have been occurring in curriculum transformation on women and encourage them to consult project publications (see also *Catalog of Resources*) and to contact project directors for more information about projects of particular interest and relevance to their needs.

295 pages, 8" X 11 hardcover, $30 individuals, $45 institutions, ISBN 1-885303-07-6

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The *Catalog* lists materials developed by curriculum transformation projects and national organizations that are available either free or for sale. These include proposals, reports, bibliographies, workshop descriptions, reading lists, revised syllabi, classroom materials, participant essays, newsletters, and other projects of curriculum transformation activities, especially from those products listed in the *Directory*. These resources provide valuable information, models, and examples for educators leading and participating in curriculum transformation activities.

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The *Introductory Bibliography* provides a list of references for beginning curriculum transformation on women, especially for those organizing projects and activities for faculty and teachers. It does not attempt to be comprehensive but rather to simplify the process of selection by offering an "introduction" that will lead you to other sources.

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➢ ***Discipline Analysis Essays***

Under the general editorship of Elaine Hedges, the National Center has requested scholars in selected academic disciplines to write brief essays summarizing the impact of the new scholarship on women on their discipline. These essays identify and explain the issues to be confronted as faculty in these disciplines revise their courses to include the information and perspectives provided by this scholarship. The series is under continuous development, and titles will be added as they become available. See order form for essays currently available.

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➢ ***CUNY Panels: Rethinking the Disciplines***

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